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ABSTRACT

A two-year, nationwide research study was funded in 1974 with discretionary funds of Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (HEA) to identify alternative patterns for developing community service programs. The study focused on methods used by decisionmakers in a variety of settings in which it was felt that strengthening had occurred as a result of HEA-funded efforts. Interviews were conducted around the country, and approximately 150 factors were identified as potentially important. Data were analyzed qualitatively through content analysis, and quantitatively through the use of multivariate analysis. Typically, those who were interviewed indicated that strengthening occurred in one or more of the following areas: (1) higher education institutional involvement in community service; (2) faculty involvement in community service; (3) instructional programs related to community problem-solving; (4) linkage between institutions and communities; and (5) the image of the institution as a resource for problem-solving. (MSE)

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Alternative Patterns for Strengthening Community Service Programs in Institutions of Higher Education

James A. Farmer, Jr.

Alan B. Knox

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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Alternative Patterns for Strengthening Community Service Programs in Institutions of Higher Education

(A Study of the Residual Effects of Federal Developmental Funding through Title I, HEA, 1965)

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Contents

About the Authors ix

Acknowledgments xi

Overview xiii

Chapter I: Introduction 1
Perspective: Strengthening and Continuation 1
Need for the Study 3
Focus of the Study 4

Chapter II: Strengthening and Continuation as Outcomes of Title I Efforts 7
What Was Strengthened 7
Institutional Involvement 7
Faculty Involvement 8
Instructional Programs 9
Linkages 9
Image 10
What Was Continued 12
Institutional Involvement 13
Faculty Involvement 13
Instructional Involvement 14
Linkages 14
Image 14

Chapter III: Influences 17
Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support . . 17
Faculty Attitudes at the Institutional Level toward Community Service 22
Faculty Attitudes at the Organizational Level toward Community Service 24
Status of the Project Director 26
Manner of Funding 30
Initiation of the Project 35
Institutions' Prior Experience with Community Service and Continuing Education 37
Summary 39

Chapter IV: Processes 43
Performing Change Agent Roles 43
Developing Administrative Support 49
Developing Faculty Support 53
Assessing Needs: Types of Needs Assessed 57
Assessing Needs: Processes 61
Involving the Community 63
Obtaining Supplemental Resources 65
Integrating Projects into Organizational Structures 69
Selecting Project Topics 74
Identifying Institutional Resources 77
Utilizing Methods of Delivery 78
Summary 81

Chapter V: Alternative Patterns 85
Key Variables 85
General Patterns 86
Centrality of Transactive Orientation 86
Uniqueness of Relationships Pertaining to Strengthening and Continuation of Instructional Programs 89
Capitalization Patterns 90
Compensation Patterns 92
Case Examples 93
Case Example 1: Development of a Community Advisory Council 94
Case Example 2: Project for Women 97
Case Example 3: State Consumer Education Project . . . 100
Case Example 4: Project Related to Instruction 103
Additional Case Examples 106
Summary 106

Chapter VI: Conclusions and Implications 107
Institutional Planning 107
State Policies 108
Administration by Project Directors 109
Suggested Uses of the Report by Adjunct Personnel and State Directors 110

Appendices 113

References 184

Figures

1. Various Forms of Higher Education 2

2. Strengthening and Continuation of Community Service Programs 5

3. Change Agent Roles Relevant to Title I (HEA, 1965) Efforts 44

4. A Taxonomy of Social Need 60

5. Functional Flow of Activities 114

Tables

1. Percentage of Projects Reporting Strengthening and Continuation of Each Type of Outcome 16

2. Orientations of Community Service and Continuing Education Programs Contrasted 88

3. Distribution of Field Interviews According to Type of Institution and State 117

4. Distribution of Field Interviews According to Type of Interviewees and State 118

Appendices

A. Research Methods 113

B. Title I Administration in Connecticut, Georgia, Minnesota, Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee 126

C. Questions for Administrators, Project Directors, and Faculty Members 132

D. Rating Instrument for Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota 136

E. Rating Instrument for Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee 140

F. Summary of Correlations between Outcomes 146

G. Multivariate Analyses of Variance for Strengthening and Continuation Outcomes 147

H. Summary of Correlations between Variables and Outcomes 151

I. Multiple Correlations of Selected Influences and Processes 167

J. Statistical Means of Outcomes, Influences, and Processes for Project Orientations 169

K. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Project Orientations 171

L. Additional Case Examples 172

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Overview

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INTRODUCTION

In the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study, it was assumed that the purpose of Title I (HEA, 1965) is to assist ". . . people of the United States in the solution of community problems . . . by enabling the commissioner to make grants under this title to *strengthen* community service programs of colleges and universities" (Title I, HEA, 1965, Sect. 101) (emphasis ours). Typically, relatively small grants have been given to institutions to develop community service programs. Bona fide development requires that what has been strengthened (started or expanded) is continued, at least to some extent, once the developmental funding has been terminated.

In the past, little attention has been given to identification, systematization, and dissemination of information about alternative ways, or patterns, for facilitating strengthening and continuation of community service programs. For further information concerning the perspective of the study, see Chapter I.

NATURE OF THE STUDY

A two-year, nationwide research study was funded in 1974 by discretionary funds of Title I (HEA, 1965) to identify alternative patterns for developing community service programs. The study focused on alternatives used by decision makers in a variety of settings in which it was thought that strengthening and continuation had occurred as a result of developmental efforts funded under the Act. During the first year, interviews were conducted in Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota; during the second year, in Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee. As a result of these interviews, approximately 150 factors were identified as potentially important in developing community service programs. Data were analyzed qualitatively through the use of content analysis, and quantitatively through the use of multivariate analysis. For further information concerning methods used, see Appendix A.

FINDINGS

Outcomes of Developmental Efforts Funded under the Act

Typically, interviewees indicated that strengthening occurred in one or more of the following:

1. Higher education *institutional involvement* in community service.
2. *Faculty involvement* in community service.
3. *Instructional programs* related to community problem solving.
4. *Linkage* between institutions and communities relevant to community problem solving.
5. *Image* of the institution as a resource for community problem solving.

Interviewees also indicated that in some instances all or some of the above were continued after funding under the Act was terminated. For further information concerning the outcomes, see Chapter II.

Factors that Facilitated and Limited Development

Of the approximately 150 factors initially identified as potentially important in efforts to develop community service programs, three key influences and six key processes were identified. They were:

Influences
Nature and extent of top-level administrative support
Faculty attitudes toward community service
Status of the project director

Processes
Performing change agent roles in the community
Performing change agent roles in the institution
Utilizing multiple approaches to needs assessment
Developing administrative support
Developing faculty support
Involving the community

In addition to these nine key factors, it was found that the general orientation of developmental efforts and the ways that strengths were capitalized upon and weaknesses were compensated for also affected efforts to bring about strengthening and continuation. Discussion in further detail of these factors follows.

Key Influences

A lack of administrative support, negative faculty attitudes toward community service, and low status of the project director in the institutions of higher education were found to severely limit developmental efforts. Conversely, favorable administrative support, positive faculty attitudes, and relatively high status of the project director were especially important factors in developing strengthening and continuation.

Top-level administrative support seemed to have a pervasive effect. Favorable support affected institutional involvement and subtly contributed to other influences and processes but did not by itself ensure strengthening and continuation.

Faculty attitudes toward community service were important at either the institutional or organizational unit level, depending on the nature of the developmental effort. When opposed to community service, a faculty group was able to severely limit strengthening and continuation.

Relatively high official status of the project director in the institution generally facilitated relationships with administrators who were able to release institutional resources relevant to community problem solving. For further information concerning influences, see Chapter III.

Key Processes

It was found that developmental projects were more effective in bringing about strengthening and continuation to the extent that:

1. Project directors performed all the change agent roles — catalyst, solution giver, process helper, and resource linker — in *both* the institution and the community. Directors who typically played only one or two of these roles (particularly if they did so only in the institution or only in the community, but not both) usually directed projects in which relatively little strengthening and continuation occurred.
2. Multiple approaches to needs assessment were used, focusing on normative needs (as defined by experts), felt needs (as felt by community problem solvers), expressed needs (based on requests and demands from community problem solvers), and comparative needs (identified by comparing services offered elsewhere and those offered in a similar setting). Strengthening and continuation were found to occur far less frequently when the types of needs to be addressed were identified by only one or two of these sources.
3. Administrators were involved in and/or were provided regular feedback concerning developmental efforts. Maintaining communication with administrators, using public relations and publicity techniques, and involving administrators in community service programs were all used to develop administrative support. Doing so associated highly with all the strengthening and continuation outcomes. By developing or maintaining administrative support, philosophic and budgetary support was more likely to result.
4. Faculty support was encouraged. Some methods were: providing monetary or material rewards, alerting faculty members to community service opportunities, facilitating student involvement under faculty supervision in community service, providing opportunities for faculty members to expand

their capabilities in teaching and research through community service, involving faculty members on advisory committees for community service programs, and increasing the likelihood that performance in community service would be rewarded in promotion and tenure decisions.

5. Appropriate persons (community leaders, government officials, agency personnel, special interest groups, business and industry leaders) were involved in developing and implementing the programs. Involvement of appropriate persons or groups was highly associated with almost all the strengthening and continuation outcomes. Involving a few appropriate community people in a variety of meaningful tasks was found to be more effective than involving large numbers of community people superficially. For further information concerning processes, see Chapter IV.

Orientation

Of the many factors identified as potentially important in facilitating or limiting developmental efforts funded under the Act, project orientation was found to be of paramount importance. Transactive-oriented developmental efforts led to significantly more strengthening and continuation than either institution-oriented or community-oriented efforts.

Like the ancient Roman god Janus, *transactive-oriented* developmental efforts faced two ways at once. These efforts sought to bring about strengthening and continuation by attending to needs and resources in *both* the institution and the community. Transactive-oriented approaches began with one or more individuals in the institution and/or community selecting a range of educational needs of community problem solvers and a range of institutional purposes and resources. They then brought those needs and resources together to match them for short-term and long-term impact.

Institution-oriented approaches assumed that the development of community service programs began with the institution. Resources such as bodies of knowledge and facilities were identified first. Community problem solvers were then sought to participate in courses, programs, and other activities.

Community-oriented approaches assumed that the development of community service programs began with the community. The needs of community problem solvers and/or agencies were identified; then the resources of the institution which were relevant to the needs were identified.

Project directors seldom selected an explicit orientation as the basis of the processes used in developmental efforts. Typically, the overall orientation was implicit in the processes selected to develop community service programs. For further information concerning orientation, see Chapter V.

Capitalization and Compensation

Efforts were sometimes made to capitalize on factors such as favorable characteristics of project directors, extensive top-level support, or other particular

aspects within the institution or community which were especially beneficial to the community service programs. Ways were also found to compensate for identified limitations. Through such compensation efforts, developmental projects that would otherwise have been relatively institution or community oriented could become transactive oriented.

Sometimes project directors worked with little or no support or understanding from the administrators to whom they reported. At other times, project directors and administrators worked together to develop transactive-oriented efforts, capitalizing on the capabilities and relationships of one or both of them in the community and/or the institution and compensating for each other's weaknesses. For further information concerning capitalization and compensation, see Chapter V.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose and design of this study recognize that the results of developmental efforts funded under the Act reflect various decisions by project directors, institutional administrators, state directors, reviewers, and others. The main accomplishments of the current study are the identification of decision areas that are particularly important in bringing about strengthening and continuation, and the identification of alternatives for each decision area found to facilitate or limit strengthening and continuation.

It may be worthwhile for state Title I (HEA, 1965) directors and institutional administrators to provide in-service training programs for persons currently involved, or those who wish to become involved, in developing community service programs. The training programs could acquaint them with the alternative patterns described in this study. The programs could particularly focus on the nature of project orientation, capitalization and compensation, key influences, and key processes found to facilitate or hinder development of community service programs.

The findings of the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study also enable those who review proposals for funding to differentiate among projects in regard to their likelihood for strengthening and continuation. Proposals can be examined to determine to what extent they are transactive oriented, to what extent needs have been or will be assessed in a comprehensive manner, and to what extent the project director plans to perform multiple change agent roles.

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Chapter I: Introduction

It was the intent of the study described in this report to produce findings useful to those at the national, state, and local levels who seek to implement Title I of the Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965. The purpose of the study was to assist persons in decision-making roles pertaining to community service that is relevant to community problem solving through an analysis of "Alternative Patterns for Strengthening Community Service Programs in Institutions of Higher Education."

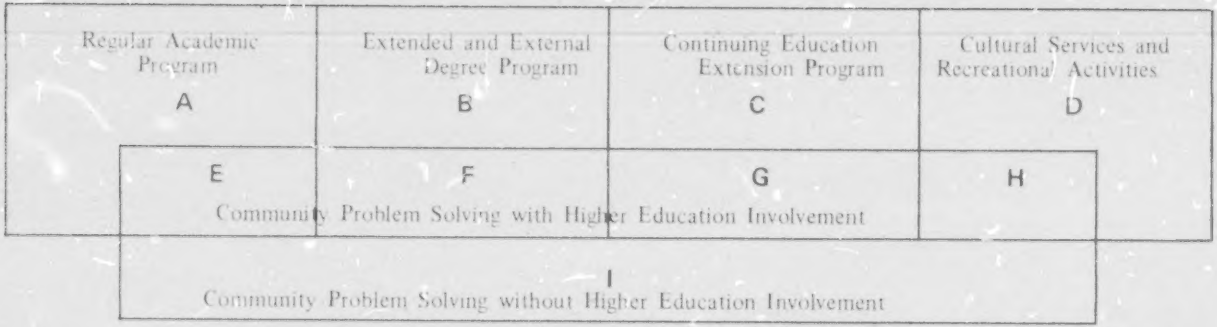
PERSPECTIVE: STRENGTHENING AND CONTINUATION

The federal government, through the enactment of Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965, has provided grants to institutions of higher education in the form of developmental funds. The developmental or "strengthening" intent of this legislation is implicitly presented in the statement of purpose of the Act itself. The purpose of the Act is to assist

> . . . people of the United States in the solution of community problems . . . by enabling the commissioner to make grants under this title to *strengthen* community service programs of colleges and universities. (emphasis ours)
>
> (Higher Education Act of 1965, Sect. 101)

Under the Act, relatively small grants have been provided to institutions of higher education to start, extend, or expand community service programs relevant to community problem solving. The community service programs to be strengthened can include, according to Sect. 102 of the Act, "an educational program, activity, or service, including a research program and a university extension or continuing education offering, which is designed to assist in the solution of community problems." Fig. 1, developed jointly by the California-based and Illinois-based research staffs, depicts various forms of higher education. Higher education "designed to assist in the solution of community problems" is depicted as E, F, G, and H in that figure.

The efforts of project directors to strengthen community service programs in an institution can be likened to the efforts of family doctors who are seeking to strengthen their practices by: (1) improving the quality of the emergency treatment facilities in their offices, (2) initiating efforts to encourage patients to come for regular preventive checkups rather than leaving medical problems undetected until they are at a crisis state, and (3) acquiring newly developed capabilities for treating patients. For a short period of time, the physicians will be willing to absorb a reasonable amount of developmental costs to expand their practices in these ways. In the long run, however, a favorable balance between costs and benefits must be attained in their overall practices if they are to have been both qualitatively and quantitatively strengthened or, in other words, if bona fide development can be assumed to have resulted from the effort and expenditure.



Regular Academic Program Including Teaching and Research (not oriented to community problem solving)	A
Extended and External Degree Program (not oriented to community problem solving)	B
Continuing Education Extension Program (not oriented to community problem solving)	C
Cultural Services and Recreational Activities (not oriented to community problem solving)	D
Academically Based Program Oriented to Community Problem Solving	E
Extended and External Degree Programs Oriented to Community Problem Solving	F
Continuing Education Extension Programs Oriented to Community Problem Solving	G
Cultural Services and Recreational Activities Oriented to Community Problem Solving	H
Community Problem Solving without Higher Education Involvement	I

Fig. 1: *Various Forms of Higher Education* (adapted from Deshler, Farmer, and Sheats, 1975, p. 39).

Expending money to conduct specific community service activities is not enough to bring about development of a community service program. Bona fide development requires that what has been strengthened (i.e., started, extended, or expanded) be continued, at least to some extent, once the developmental funding has been terminated. Of course, what has been strengthened should be *worth* continuing; otherwise making provisions for its continuation would be counterproductive.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

As indicated above, facilitating the strengthening of community service programs in institutions of higher education seems to be the intent of Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Accomplishing this goal has been troublesome. According to Katz (1973), previous studies of projects funded under this Act found that there has seldom been a strategy for strengthening and continuation in project proposals and state plans. Katz has concluded that this oversight can be viewed as a possibile deficiency of the implementation of the Act. Moreover, Katz has observed that, when strengthening and continuation have occurred, they have often been the result of chance or accident instead of effective project planning and management. Running community service programs with developmental funding can provide an immediate service to communities with little or no strengthening and continuation occurring other than the short-term stimulus of additional programming dollars. According to the one top-level administrator in an institution of higher education, there is a large "graveyard" of good-to-excellent programs that have been developed as a result of federally funded developmental efforts but which have not been (and perhaps could not be) continued once federal developmental money was withdrawn. Generally, if what has been developed by projects funded under the Act is to continue after developmental funding is terminated, efforts need to be made to foster strengthening and continuation. Decisions have to be made to adopt or otherwise make provisions for the continuation of what was started, extended, or expanded.

In the past, little attention has been given to identification, systematization, and dissemination of information about alternative ways or patterns of facilitating strengthening and continuation of community service programs. The "Alternative Patterns . . ." study has been designed to identify systematically the range of alternatives used and their consequences in diverse settings in which *projects* funded under the Act took place. These alternatives and their consequences can supplement what is already known by those involved in decision making by providing a broader base of alternatives available for use in developing strategies for strengthening and continuation of community service programs.

FOCUS OF THE STUDY

The "Alternative Patterns . . ." study has focused on the processes by which community service programs in institutions of higher education have been strengthened and continued as a result of developmental projects funded by Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. The study was designed to identify effective alternative patterns which have enabled or can enable community service programs to be strengthened and continued. The study sought:

1. To understand how the strengthening and continuation processes work in various college and university settings;
2. To demonstrate through case study analysis the nature and effects of the strengthening and continuation processes; and
3. To develop generalizations, based on the above, concerning ways to improve strengthening and continuation.

In focusing on factors that contribute to strengthening and continuation, it was found helpful to identify, differentiate between, and obtain information about each of the following:

1. Institutional community service programs that existed before the institution received funding under the Act;
2. Community service programs that were subsidized by other resources and conducted concurrently with those that were started, extended, or expanded as a result of efforts funded under the Act;
3. Projects funded under the Act to start, extend, or expand community service programs;
4. Community service programs that have been *strengthened* as a result of projects funded under the Act;
5. Community service programs that were started as a result of those projects and that were *continued* after the projects were terminated;
6. Factors that facilitated and hindered strengthening and continuation.

In this study it has been important to distinguish between a developmental *project* that is described in a proposal and receives funding under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 and an ongoing institutional or community *program* to which the project should contribute. Strengthening and continuation of a community service program as a result of efforts funded under the Act are depicted in Fig. 2.

The "Alternative Patterns . . ." study was not funded to evaluate community service programs started, extended, or expanded as a result of efforts funded under the Act. Rather, as described above, it focused on developmental projects funded under the Act to strengthen community service programs which, in turn, have been designed to assist persons in the solution of community problems.

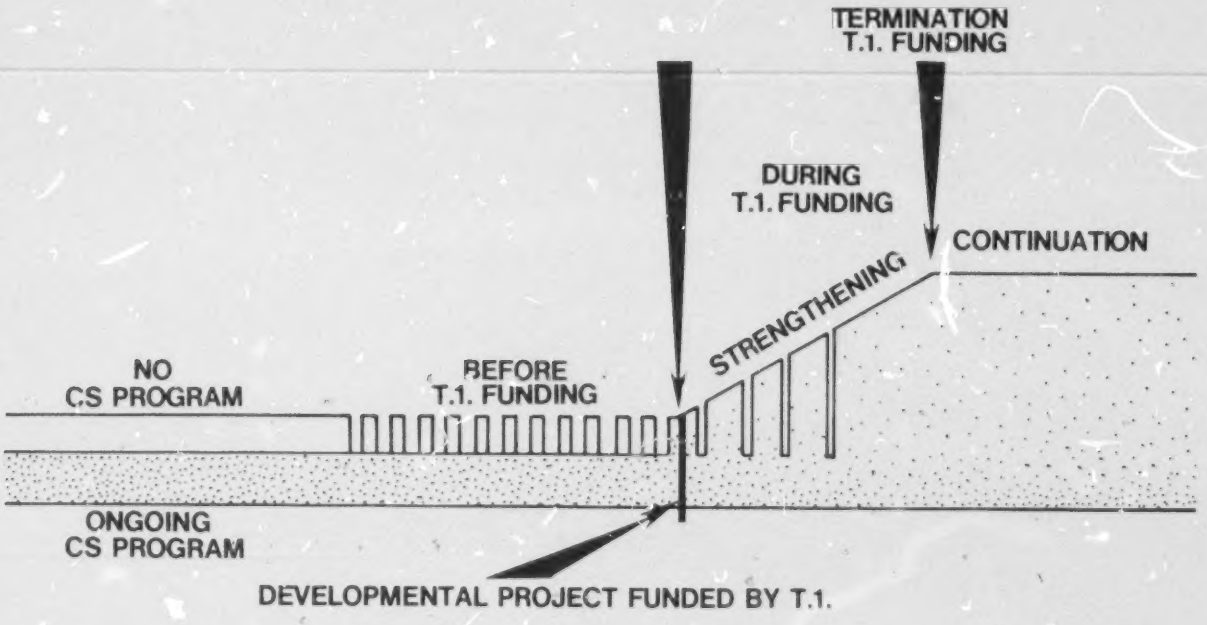


Fig. 2: *Strengthening and Continuation of Community Service Programs.*

Evaluative feedback from community problem solvers, mostly informally obtained, indicated that many participants valued what they had learned enough to return to the program for additional assistance. However, the extent to which actual community problems were reduced or solved was beyond the scope of this study, and this type of specific impact related to project objectives needs further analysis.

The conclusions of this report should be useful to both those decision makers who fund projects as well as those who implement the projects.

To persons already knowledgeable about such projects, many of the influences, processes, and outcomes described in this report should be familiar. In other instances, the conclusions should provide decision makers with new insights into influences and processes that contribute to strengthening and continuation.

Along with this first chapter, the summary sections of Chapters II through V present an overview of the rationale, findings, and conclusions of the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study. The types of strengthening and continuation outcomes identified in this study are described in Chapter II (p. 15). Summaries of findings concerning influences and processes which affect strengthening and continuation are located at the end of Chapters III and IV (pp. 39-41 and 81-83). Findings concerning relationships among influences, processes, and outcomes are presented in the first pages of Chapter V.

The research procedures are described in Appendix A and summarized in Fig. 5 entitled "Functional Flow of Activities" (p. 114). The research methodology was designed to permit flexibility in data gathering and analysis in order to capture the strengths of project approaches in each of the six states in which interviews were conducted. While project representativeness was achieved through the use of dimensional sampling (Arnold, 1970), the six states and the institutions in which interviews were conducted were selected because they were thought to have successful state programs and institutional projects. As a result, unsuccessful projects are underrepresented in the sample that was analyzed. Because the study was exploratory in nature, the procedures used to gather and analyze data in Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota during the first year were extended and refined during the collection and analysis of data in Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee during the second year.

Chapter II: Strengthening and Continuation as Outcomes of Title I Efforts

In this chapter, findings are presented concerning the nature and extent of strengthening and continuation of community service programs that resulted from developmental efforts funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965.

WHAT WAS STRENGTHENED

Interviewees were asked, "What has been strengthened as a result of Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts in this institution?" Typical interviewees indicated that strengthening had occurred, at least in part, as a result of efforts funded under the Act, in one or more of the following:

1. Higher education *institutional involvement* in community service,
2. *Faculty involvement* in community service,
3. *Instructional programs* related to community problem solving,
4. *Linkage* between institutions of higher education and communities relevant to community problem solving, and
5. *Image* of the institution of higher education as a resource for community problem solving.

A description of the types of strengthening of institutional involvement, faculty involvement, instructional programs related to community problem solving, linkage, and image that reportedly occurred is presented below.

Strengthening of Institutional Involvement

As a result of efforts funded under the Act, institutional involvement in providing assistance relevant to community problem solving was strengthened. Administrators became more aware of community problems and of resources in the institutions that could assist in community problem solving. New community service programs were initiated and existing ones were strengthened, sometimes as interdisciplinary efforts. According to interviewees, institutional involvement in assisting in the solution of community problems was strengthened in the following ways:

> Title I (HEA, 1965) has strengthened campus involvement. Certainly the administrators are more conscious of our area's problems now. The institution has accepted a new responsibility.

> The institution used to have an image as a teachers' college which was not involved in any significant way in community problem solving. Title I has opened a whole new area for involvement for the institution.

Title I served as a catalytic agent that allowed us to develop community service programs. We ordinarily would not have been able to do so.

Funds were used as start-up money to get the community service operation going.

As a result of Title I funding a separate bureau for community service and public service was begun and staffed by two full-time faculty members and associates.

One of the things that was strengthened was the general budget support for community problem solving in the institution. There were absolutely no dollars set aside for these activities in 1965, and now there is $30,000. Further, the institution has now identified public service as one of its major goals. Title I activities with their early emphasis on urban problem solving has been most important in the identification of this goal.

We have been able to extend in new directions some of our existing programs. The ability of the Urban Center to serve as a resource for the solution of community problems was increased.

Title I permitted this institution to hire additional staff for our use in community service programs.

As a result of funds provided under the Act, we were able to develop interdisciplinary community service programs. Various departments within the institution were involved.

Strengthening of Faculty Involvement

Interviewees indicated that as a result of efforts funded under the Act faculty involvement in community service related to community problem solving was strengthened, faculty awareness of community problems increased, faculty members began focusing on real-life community problems in their teaching and research rather than on hypothetical problems, faculty members were more thoroughly utilized as they began to relate what they knew to community problems, and those faculty members who were already involved in community service began involving others. According to interviewees:

The whole Title I (HEA, 1965) expegience has been an eye-opening one for most faculty members. They have become more aware of the community and its problems.

Title I efforts strengthened the awareness of faculty members of the educational needs in the community which this institution could meet through some of its programs and expertise.

We got faculty members involved in focusing on real community problems instead of textbook kinds of case histories of problems.

It permitted faculty talent to be better utilized in providing services in the community and gave the community and the institution an added dimension for community problem solving.

As a result of Title I, a number of faculty members became involved directly in community problem solving. It opened many doors and provided many opportunities for faculty members to work in the community.

Title I has had a filtering-down effect through those faculty members who were initially involved and who have been able to now involve some of their fellow faculty members in community service and community problem solving.

Strengthening of Instructional Programs

Funding provided under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 reportedly strengthened instructional programs related to community problem solving. New academic programs designed to prepare persons to help solve community problems were generated as a result of efforts funded under the Act. Existing instructional programs were made more relevant to community problem solving. Experiential education (in which full-time students in the resident instruction program worked under the supervision of faculty members and agency personnel, helping in community problem-solving efforts) was started, extended, or expanded as a result of efforts funded under the Act. For example, interviewees stated:

> Title I (HEA, 1965) generated a whole new academic program concerned with public affairs.
>
> The core of the graduate program has been strengthened by Title I. Consequently, graduate students are involved in actual rather than theoretical situations.
>
> About four years ago we went into an experientially based curriculum in which we used community service efforts. The director of the project funded under the Act helped to identify community people who worked as resource people for experiential education.
>
> A new multidisciplinary curriculum was added. This allowed us to test classroom theory using the community as a "real world" laboratory.
>
> Experiential learning and interdisciplinary programs both on the undergraduate and graduate levels resulted from these developmental efforts. Valuable learning experiences were gained by students while at the same time the community was being helped.
>
> As a result of Title I there was a softening of faculty attitudes toward field experience and an acceptance by faculty members of more varied opportunities for practical field experience. The faculty members now require students to get field experience through the center that was established as a result of efforts funded under the Act.

Strengthening of Linkages

According to interviewees, efforts funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 strengthened linkages between institutions of higher education and communities served by those institutions. Relationships between institutions of higher education were improved. Communication networks relevant to community problem solving were established and maintained. Institutions and agencies entered into working relationships relevant to community problem solving. Interviewees typically described linkages that had been established as follows:

> As a result of Title I (HEA, 1965), we have a working relationship with about sixty agencies. This type of community linkage is new for the institution.
>
> Title I has enabled us to relate to communities previously untouched.

We have established a close working relationship with community agencies, and the college is thought of as a community center.

The ties of this college to viable community agencies have been enhanced. Some of these relationships might have been established without Title I, but certainly not as quickly or strongly.

Title I provided an opportunity for this institution to meet the public. In this way we minimized the stereotypes and promoted communication between our institution and the community. We wanted to show ourselves as people and not as ivory tower eggheads. One of the most useful things that resulted from efforts funded under the Act was bringing people together.

Communication networks have been established between persons at this institution and those in local community agencies.

We are now involved in cooperative community service efforts with city councils, planning departments, mayors, management departments, and health and sanitation departments.

Through Title I we were able to use a contact person in the community to serve as a liaison between our institution and persons with problems in the community. It has allowed us to create trust relationships not only with persons in the community but also with individual faculty and staff members at other institutions. We have been able to develop an effective operational network statewide that can assist with solving community problems. The key to the success of our projects has been the people that have made the system work, not necessarily the administrative units involved.

Two of our faculty members funded under the Act set up the first meeting of all the people interested in community service in the institutions of higher education in this metropolitan area. We wanted to cooperate with other institutions in the city, and then we expanded the idea to include the entire state. This was the beginning of the consortium. We tried to promote cooperation rather than competition in the state.

Strengthening of Image

Individual projects provided faculty members, students, and institutions an avenue for visibility and scrutiny by the public. Community service activities relevant to community problem solving served as good public relations for institutions of higher education and helped to familiarize the public with the institutional resources and capabilities available to help solve community problems. On the one hand, institutions gained visibility in the community, their images were improved, and they were perceived as being concerned about community problems and more involved in doing something about them. On the other hand, communities identified more with the institutions of higher education, and community problem solvers requested assistance from them. According to interviewees:

The community has come to identify with the college. The community is now aware that this college is one which can and will help them with their community problems.

Title I (HEA, 1965) has made the institution much more visible, and it has built support for the institution in the community. Persons in the community are now aware that we can provide services for the community that are not provided by other agencies.

> Title I demonstrated to the community the university's capacity to act responsibly in community affairs.
>
> The image of the institution was definitely strengthened at a high level. The persons involved from the community publicized widely the fact that the institution was there to assist the community.
>
> This Title I project has been a vehicle by which the community has become aware of the university's interest in the community. People now call back for additional help.
>
> Because of Title I the institution now has an image for its community involvement and as a community leader. It is viewed as being concerned, plugged into the needs of the community, and doing something about them.
>
> Because of Title I people in the community accepted that we can be of public service–a catalytic agent in the community. Before Title I they had to depend on larger institutions of higher education at a considerable distance. Having an image of being involved has strengthened our position with the community in general.

In summary, analysis of the data indicated that what was strengthened in institutions of higher education included: (1) institutional involvement in community service related to community problem solving, (2) faculty involvement in community service related to community problem solving, (3) instructional programs related to community problem solving, (4) linkages between the institution of higher education and the community relevant to community problem solving, and (5) the image of the institution of higher education as a resource for community problem solving.

According to findings reported in the California report (Deshler, Farmer, and Sheats, 1975) and substantiated by this study, strengthening of community service programs in institutions of higher education was brought about in the following ways:

1. Increasing the *size* of programs or activities constituted strengthening. This meant that either more persons were involved or that the scope of the activity had increased. For example, new activities were added, more academic departments were involved, or more faculty members or students were participating.
2. Increasing the operating *energy* of programs or activities constituted strengthening. This meant that the force, vigor, potency, intensity, or ability to perform had increased. For example, new powerful or efficient methods were being used, professional competency had been increased, or participants were showing a greater commitment to activities.
3. Increasing the *centrality* of programs or activities within the mission of the institution of higher education constituted strengthening. This meant that there had been a decrease in the marginality of the program and an increase in viewing the program as having a higher priority. For example, the program received public recognition by the president, staff persons were allowed greater representation in decision making in the institution, or the program was moved structurally within the institution so as to provide greater power or recognition.

4. Increasing the *durability* of programs or activities constituted strengthening. This meant that programs or activities had a high prospect of continuing in the future and could withstand an adverse climate and still survive. For example, a program may have received a long-term funding commitment, achieved support of friends in high places who provided cover, or obtained a measure of independence through an organizational or structural arrangement within the institution.

(Deshler, Farmer, and Sheats, 1975, p. 49)

It seems that providing for durability in what is strengthened needs to be viewed as an integral rather than optional or incidental aspect of developmental projects. Moreover, as indicated in Chapter I, bona fide development requires that increased size, energy, and/or centrality be continued, at least partially, once developmental funding has terminated. Findings concerning what was continued are presented below.

WHAT WAS CONTINUED

As found in the California study, analysis of the data from interviewees indicated that, when developmental funding was terminated, any one of the following was likely to occur:

1. What had been started, extended, or expanded would not be continued because of decisions in institutions of higher education. (This occurred when short-term needs were fulfilled through research or catch-up education was provided to a target group on a one-time basis.)
2. What had been started, extended, or expanded would not be continued, due mainly to the lack of available resources even though it had demonstrated its value and worth. (This occurred in new types of programs which were viewed as having low priority by the institutions of higher education.)
3. What had been started, extended, or expanded would be continued. (This occurred in developmental efforts as a result of what had been strengthened and then considered valuable enough for an institution of higher education or an agency in the community to continue it through inclusion, merger, or adoption.)

Interviewees were asked, "Of that which was strengthened, what was *continued* after Title I (HEA, 1965) funding terminated?" Analysis of their responses indicated that, in at least some projects, each of the types of strengthening listed on page 00 was also continued. A description of the types of *continuation* of institutional involvement, faculty involvement, instructional programs related to community problem solving, linkage, and image that reportedly occurred is presented next.

Continuation of Institutional Involvement

Institutions continued to be involved in community service programs started, extended, or expanded as a result of efforts funded under the Act. Sometimes it was made possible as a result of hard money funding for community service or from the institution's general budget. Personnel hired from these funds could then provide a nucleus for ongoing community service programs. Otherwise continuation was made possible through the use of other forms of supplemental funding described in Chapter IV under "Obtaining Supplemental Resources." Interviewees described continuation of increased institutional involvement in community service activities as follows:

> The bureau for community service, started as a result of Title I (HEA, 1965) funding, continued as a result of hard money that the institution received from the state.

> The institution has provided hard institutional money for one person to continue work in community service. That person facilitates the continuation of student involvement, faculty involvement, administrative support, community contacts, and linkage. We now have more requests than we can deal with.

> Shortly before the Title I effort was completed, the board funded a director of community service. He has been the hub because of Title I. Unfreezing took place, and the director's office resulted.

> The project director brought what was being done under Title I (HEA, 1965) to the attention of decision makers in several local foundations and businesses. What was started under Title I funding has been continued largely by supplemental funds obtained from those sources.

Continuation of Faculty Involvement

Sometimes faculty members who had become involved in community service programs continued involvement on a voluntary basis. At other times, compensatory time was provided for them to continue to be involved in community service. Concerning continuation of increased faculty involvement in community service activities, interviewees stated:

> Two of us who are faculty members asked for an extension of our grant. It was denied, but we are carrying on what was started in the project on a voluntary basis anyway.

> Title I (HEA, 1965) was what initially freed faculty members to engage in community service activities. Compensatory time has been provided ever since for such activities.

> Because our Title I efforts served as a catalyst for involvement of various faculty members and was such a success, these individuals have continued to work on community problems on their own with specific groups or as private citizens.

> The faculty involvement in community programs has continued. I continue to conduct other programs in consumerism, even though they are no longer funded under Title I.

Continuation of Instructional Programs

Programs and courses developed as a result of efforts funded under the Act and designed to assist community problem solvers have continued to be provided. Instructional materials have continued to be used by community problem solvers. Continuation of improved and expanded instructional programs relevant to community problem solving was described as follows:

> The Department of Higher Adult Education, started as a result of a project funded under the Act, is now fully funded by state appropriations. This program continues to prepare many students for work in community service.
>
> Title I (HEA, 1965) projects have developed new instructional methods, manuals, and pamphlets that were left with departments and which are used in working with the community.
>
> We still provide credit courses that were designed to help agency personnel and others in the community reach their community problem-solving goals.

Continuation of Linkages

Working relationships between persons in institutions of higher education and community problem solvers have continued to function following the termination of funding under the Act. Interviewees described continuation of linkage between institutions of higher education and communities in the following manner:

> Efforts funded under the Act catalyzed a working group of faculty members and counselors in the community. That group has continued to meet and engage in a variety of activities to strengthen counseling of various types provided to adults in this region.
>
> Because of the Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts, the American Indians in this city began to turn to this college and began to understand that persons in the college cared about them and their problems. After these projects ended, the feeling persisted and is only gradually fading out.
>
> Following the termination of funding under Title I, we were asked to serve as a consulting or advisory group to the State Planning Office. We have also been asked by other county or local citizens groups to join them in various community problem-solving efforts. The County Coordinating Committee for City Services has asked us to become part of their association.
>
> A seemingly permanent and viable relationship has evolved between the institution and the community.
>
> An administrative policy-setting network, developed statewide as a result of Title I, continues to facilitate our assisting in community problem solving.

Continuation of Image

Institutions have continued to be seen as a resource relevant to community problem solving and to benefit from the favorable image established by community service programs started, extended, or expanded by efforts funded un-

der the Act. The following statements by interviewees describe ways that improved image of institutions of higher education continued after developmental funding terminated:

> Having become involved outside of the classroom, even though sometimes we fouled up, we continue to be seen as a resource for community problem-solving efforts.
>
> People come to the institution with problems, now that our track record in community problem solving has been established.
>
> The community became aware of what services are available in the institution. As a result of Title I (HEA, 1965) a set of expectations was created. The community continues to demand community services. This puts pressure on the president to continue the community service program.
>
> We continue to have an image of acceptance and support. The people in the community have continued to be willing to pay taxes for the institution, and we take that as evidence of their continuing to view us as important.

The strengthening and continuation outcomes were inductively generated based on the responses of interviewees, and their intercorrelations were computed to examine their interrelationship. The intercorrelation of the outcomes (see Appendix F) indicated the following patterns of association:

1. Strengthening and continuation of faculty involvement were highly associated with strengthening and continuation of instructional programs;
2. Strengthening and continuation of linkage were highly associated with strengthening and continuation of image;
3. Strengthening and continuation of faculty involvement and instructional programs were associated with strengthening and continuation of linkage and image at a low or insignificant level;
4. Strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement were highly associated with all of the outcomes, especially faculty involvement.

In summary, analysis of the data indicated that in some instances what had been strengthened was not continued for a variety of reasons. In a majority of instances, however, continuation did occur or, in other words, there was a *residual* effect. Table 1 shows the percentage of all Title I (HEA, 1965) projects that were studied (grouped by type of outcome) which reported clear evidence of strengthening and continuation. Predictably, continuation outcomes were not as prevalent as strengthening outcomes because of economic factors in the institutions and communities. Nevertheless, extensive strengthening and a considerable residual effect were found to have occurred through efforts funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965.

(N = 85)

Types of Outcomes	% Strengthened	% Continued
Increased higher education institution involvement in community service activities	94%	78%
Increased faculty involvement in community service activities	92%	62%
Improved and expanded higher education institution instructional programs relevant to community service	68%	61%
Linkage between higher education institution and community	98%	82%
Improved image of the higher education institution	98%	81%

Table 1: *Percentage of Projects Reporting Strengthening and Continuation of Each Type of Outcome.*

Chapter III: Influences

In this study, factors which comprise a force field within which projects funded by Title I of the Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965 operate have been termed *influences*.

Interviewees were asked to specify the influences that they believed most extensively facilitated or hindered strengthening and continuation. Some of the influences that they identified were endemic to institutions of higher education, and some were externally generated. Some of the influences were existing institutional realities over which the project director had little control. The influences most often identified by interviewees were the following:

1. Nature and extent of top-level administrative support,
2. Faculty attitudes at the institutional level toward community service,
3. Faculty attitudes at the organizational unit level toward community service,
4. Status of the project director,
5. Manner of funding,
6. Initiation of the project,
7. Institutions' prior experience with community service and continuing education.

In the remainder of this chapter each of these influences is described along with the ways interviewees perceived the influences were related to strengthening and continuation. Qualitative and quantitative findings concerning the association of each influence with specific outcomes are also presented. Significant statistical associations between influences and outcomes are summarized in Appendix H.

Methods used to analyze data in the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study are described in Appendix A.

NATURE AND EXTENT OF TOP-LEVEL ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

Interviewees were asked to describe the nature and extent of top-level administrative support for developmental efforts in their institutions funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Statements by respondents indicated that the nature and extent of top-level support ranged from favorable to indifferent. Top-level support generally came from a president, a prominent vice-president, a dean, or a combination of key administrators. Respondents referred to the nature and extent of support from top-level administrators, from administrators at the unit level, or from both. Responses which indicated a favorable top-level administrative attitude toward community service activities fell into these four categories: (1) positive administrative support, (2)

budgetary support, (3) administrative involvement, and (4) strong verbal support with little monetary support.

Many respondents referred to the positive and enthusiastic support from top-level administrators. Examples of such responses include the following:

> Administrative support in this institution is fantastic. Our institution is committed to continuing education and greatly supports Title I (HEA, 1965) activities.
>
> The administration is willing to let me develop an effective urban studies program. The administration provides "gambling money" for pilot projects.
>
> Administrative support is very positive, strong, and encouraging. This is at any level from the president on down. There is real commitment which flows up in the form of enthusiasm and genuine support for community service efforts.

Many other respondents were more explicit in their descriptions of the nature and extent of top-level administrative support. These respondents indicated that top-level administrative support was positive not only in terms of the administration's philosophy and attitude but in terms of budgetary allocations for these activities. The following statements illustrate this type of response:

> There is real support for continuation, including monetary support. Part of the monetary support is in the matching requirement. There is real support from the president. We are even trying to utilize the dorms in the off-season as sites for conventions and conferences.
>
> Community service is considered a very high priority of this institution by the president. The administration allows released time for faculty and definitely encourages faculty participation. Furthermore, we provide an institutional match in dollars usually in excess of the required 50 percent.
>
> The dean for community service shares ideas intellectually, supports us emotionally, and provides resources and contacts.

Several interviewees indicated that favorable administrative support had been demonstrated by top-level administrators who actually initiated or otherwise became involved in community problem-solving efforts funded under the Act. The following statements illustrate this type of response:

> The president and I wrote the first proposal. I put together the advisory committee. After that we brought the dean here, and he and I worked together hand-in-glove. After the second year, he took hold. I continue to have input, particularly about comparative need. We are careful not to get out of our area, that is, into the kind of programming that the high school or the four-year colleges can provide around here. He bounces ideas off me. He clears them, and I give him a go-ahead. It's important so that I can understand what is happening.
>
> It is pretty solid. The president is on the State Advisory Committee for Title I. He's interested in getting the faculty out into the field. The president has shown real interest.

Respondents also described a type of top-level administrative support in which strong verbal support was coupled with little monetary support. Interviewees reported:

> At the institutional level the support is strong for continuing education, but money isn't provided. We are given flexibility in handling our incomes. We have indirect

costs, but now we have less than we used to. The president is proud of continuing education, because it is one of the few programs for which we have national recognition and because it doesn't cost the university very much.

There is strong philosophic support, but there are minimal dollars available. The state just doesn't fund it.

There is strong philosophic support, but it could be better advertised. The financial support is disappointing. In-kind services are provided, but when you look hard at them you realize how limited they are.

Although the largest percentage of responses indicated a favorable nature of administrative support, a number of respondents stated that administrative support was moderate. The following statements exemplify this type of response:

There is some philosophical commitment on the part of the administration here to community problem solving. They have the money for this position and, in general, allow me a fair measure of flexibility.

I don't feel the support of the president and the vice-president for public service is aggressive enough.

It is generally good. The administration is open but dubious.

Some respondents indicated that top-level administrators seemed to be indifferent toward community service activities. The following statements illustrate this type of limited administrative support:

At the present time we have very little support from top administrators. Title I (HEA, 1965) has lost virtually all of its credibility.

The institutional administrative support has been minimal.

The executives on this campus have not legitimized this type of activity.

Many interviewees claimed that favorable top-level administrative support was an important facilitating influence. Interviewees stated:

The biggest factor is the dean of the School of Arts and Sciences. He supports our idea of trying to bring the community into the classroom.

Strengthening came when there was a dean who was willing to give a certain amount of power to individuals who sought to do community service.

There is commitment from the administration to build community service into the curriculum and into the regular ongoing operation of the university. That commitment has helped both strengthening and continuation.

Many respondents cited positive administrative support as a *prerequisite* for effective Title I (HEA, 1965) programs. Administrative support, according to some interviewees, was crucial to the strengthening and continuation of such programs. Typical responses included the following:

I think you have to obtain presidential commitment to the project at the beginning.

Most important, you need the commitment of the administration, because you won't accomplish much without the president being sold on the purposes of it.

Get institutional support and endorsement. Make sure that this is more than lip service and is an indication of strong commitment in terms of budget.

Favorable top-level administrative support reportedly facilitated strengthening and continuation in that administrators were thought to have the capacity to affect both *officially* and *informally* the involvement of the institution in community problem solving. According to some interviewees, administrators *officially* affected involvement in community problem-solving activities through their decision-making responsibilities concerning policy and resource allocation. Top-level administrators set institutional priorities and had the ability to find resources to continue what they considered to be valuable. According to interviewees:

> A powerful president as a sponsor can get done in the area of community service those things that he wants done, and he can discover ways to continue what he sees as being valuable.
>
> Continuation of what was started by our Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts was made possible because of a decision by the president to use some of his discretionary funds for that purpose.
>
> As president, I have worked with the Title I director to build a cadre of effective people who are able to operate well in community service. They keep community service going.
>
> In order to strengthen your program, you need administrative support. Administrators find ways of facilitating programs and finances.
>
> It is really a matter of the chief administrator's priorities and available money whether or not Title I efforts become an integral part of the institution.

Top-level administrators also were perceived as having the official power to reorganize the organizational structure to facilitate community problem-solving involvement.

> When our current president arrived about four years ago, he instituted a thorough review of our program and, as a result, created a vice-president of continuing education and public service and made significant budgetary and personnel resource commitments to that program. Furthermore, he established positions in four colleges at the associate dean level which were to be responsible for continuing education and public service in those colleges and for noncredit activities such as seminars. There is a strong commitment of the president to public service. When he created a vice-president for continuing education and public service, he served notice to the university that public service was no longer relegated to the back rooms.
>
> The president set up this office which was designed to handle all external linkages of the college. The original president had this vision, and there was no precedent for an office of this kind in the state. He also gave the head of the community service office a deanship which carried some status with it. The president definitely planned to use community facilities and part-time people as part of the community service effort.

The strong commitment and personal interest of top-level administrators reportedly *informally* influenced institutional and faculty involvement in community problem-solving activities. Top-level administrators played a leadership role in increasing involvement in community problem solving. According to interviewees:

> The president says that community service and continuing education are where the action is. He asked why more isn't going on and urges others to become involved.
>
> Our dean has provided moral and technical support for our efforts. He has helped build support among other deans and department chairpersons for my Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts.

In some instances interviewees stated that they believed that favorable administrative support combined with favorable faculty attitudes positively affected strengthening and continuation outcomes.

> I think both faculty support and administrative support have been the key in terms of strengthening our efforts in regard to Title I (HEA, 1965).
>
> Good cooperation from the administration and the faculty have facilitated strengthening and continuation of our Title I efforts.
>
> The cooperative attitudes among various departments and between departments and administration facilitate the involvement in particular projects such as these.

As indicated in Appendix H, top-level administrative support was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement and with continuation of linkage and image.

The statistical findings were generally supported by the qualitative data. Interviewees stated that in most cases top-level administrative support was crucial to substantial institutional involvement, especially when the reallocation of resources was necessary. The lack of top-level support, and the marginality of community service and continuing education efforts that could result, was cited by some interviewees as a hindering factor. When there was no institutional or organizational support, what was accomplished tended to be the result of individual efforts which generally became identified with the individuals who directed them rather than with the institution.

In some institutions in which top-level support was perceived as minimal, community service efforts were continued by attaching them to ongoing organizational units. Using this method, administrative commitment of new resources was not required.

Top-level administrators indicated that they viewed continuation of linkages between their institutions and the community favorably because they thought that those linkages: (1) helped fulfill their institutions' commitments to public service, (2) extended the boundaries of the institution, (3) facilitated the enrollment of more students generally, and especially the types of students who had been underrepresented in the institution, including women, aged, and persons from minority groups, and (4) facilitated response to internal or external demands to make the institutions and the education that they provide more relevant.

In short, top-level administrative support was found to range from extensive to minimal support of efforts funded under the Act. Furthermore, this support seemed to have a major impact on the extent of institutional involvement, especially when the efforts required the reallocation of institutional resources.

FACULTY ATTITUDES AT THE INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL TOWARD COMMUNITY SERVICE

Interviewees were asked to describe the attitude of faculty members at the institutional level toward community service relevant to community problem solving. Responses indicated that these attitudes ranged from highly supportive to generally unfavorable.

Many respondents, particularly in smaller institutions, claimed very favorable faculty attitudes existed throughout the institution. Interviewees typically stated:

> Faculty members in this institution generally are in favor of community service and efforts to strengthen it here.

In contrast, many interviewees reported unfavorable faculty attitudes at the institutional level because of their fear of disrupting traditional education, heavy work loads, or unpleasant experiences with trying to obtain funding under the Act. Interviewees stated:

> The faculty members in this institution seem threatened by their peers who become involved in community service or research that is oriented to the community. They seem to think that having community service in the institution disturbs the sanctity that teaching has had as the only criterion of promotion of faculty.

> Faculty members are not very active in community service, mainly because they are overworked. There are some problems with their commitment to community service.

> We are disillusioned. Many proposals are generated, but few are funded, which leaves people feeling futile. When we look for real sources of funding, we don't think automatically of Title I (HEA, 1965).

Many interviewees reported mixed attitudes on the part of their faculties. In most instances, those who were involved in efforts funded under the Act reported favorable attitudes, while others were either indifferent to, unaware of, or opposed to such efforts. According to interviewees:

> There are a few faculty members with a positive attitude toward continuing education and community service, but many look down on it. Overall, the attitude is one of indifference.

> Those who know are quite supportive. The rest — 50 to 60 percent — don't care.

> The general attitude of the faculty toward public service is good. But faculty members do not know very much about Title I (HEA, 1965).

> Generally, I don't think too many faculty members know much about Title I efforts. However, there is a good positive attitude toward community service and problem solving in general.

> It is difficult to determine what the general attitude of faculty members at this institution is toward Title I efforts. I would say, though, that with very few exceptions, if we ask them what Title I is, they probably would not know.

> The faculty members who are involved are excited and positive. The people who don't work with it call our work blasphemy — watered-down education.

Some institutions' prior history of community service related to faculty attitudes, in that the faculty had always been involved in community service and would continue to be involved.

> At the institutional level, they are accustomed to participating in continuing education of the normal type. They expect us to be their representatives and experts in relating to the community.

In one institution an interviewee linked faculty support with administrative support as influencing strengthening.

> I think both faculty support and administrative support have been the key in terms of strengthening our efforts in regard to Title I (HEA, 1965).

Many interviewees stated that they thought that faculty attitudes at the institutional level tended to affect developmental efforts funded under the Act. For example, interviewees stated:

> The faculty members in this institution have demonstrated their commitment to building community service here. Their supportive attitude has helped our efforts funded under Title I (HEA, 1965).

> Continuation was brought about by faculty motivation. At first the faculty kind of laughed about what we were talking about doing. Now they want in. It's a status thing, and our programs are booming.

As indicated in Appendix H, faculty attitudes at the institutional level were significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, faculty involvement, and image, and with strengthening of instructional program and linkage. These associations are based primarily on data obtained in Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee. In these states, greater emphasis was placed on state themes and on efforts conducted under consortial arrangements. As a result, efforts funded under the Act tended to be interdisciplinary in scope and approach, and they required commitment from individuals not concentrated in a single department or unit.

Data obtained in Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota further confirmed that faculty attitudes at the institutional level facilitated the involvement of faculty members in community service efforts related to community problem solving. As expected, faculty members who were favorable toward community service were more readily involved in it than those who were indifferent or opposed to it.

In short, positive faculty attitude toward community service at the institutional level was found to be a moderately facilitating influence in institutions in which developmental efforts and faculty participation were concentrated in specific departments or units. It was found to be a stronger influence in institutions where the developmental effort was interdisciplinary in scope and approach.

FACULTY ATTITUDES AT THE ORGANIZATIONAL UNIT LEVEL TOWARD COMMUNITY SERVICE

Interviewees were asked, "What is the attitude of faculty members at the level of the organizational unit that conducted projects funded by Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 in your institution?" Responses ranged from, "It is strongly supportive," to, "It is generally negative." For example, interviewees described positive attitudes at the organizational unit level as follows:

> Faculty members in this department view community service favorably because they personally are service-oriented or because they believe that community service must become an integral part of the department, if the department is to fulfill its academic potential.

> Faculty attitudes concerning my project are very good in this department, and they probably are generally positive across the campus.

> Those close to what's going on have been very supportive. Some faculty members in our department viewed community problem solving as an outlet for their consulting; others used it to enrich class activities; and some are just plain committed.

In describing unfavorable faculty attitudes toward community service at the organizational unit level, interviewees referred to faculty reluctance to try new academic programs and to the technical aspects of meeting grant requirements. For example:

> The attitude of faculty members toward community service is very bad. They are for the most part older teachers, and, although the administration encourages involvement in community service, the faculty members in the unit actively oppose it.

> I cannot speak for the institution as a whole, but I and the rest of the faculty within my department feel that there is too much red tape involved in dealing with Title I (HEA, 1965).

Faculty unawareness of or indifference to efforts funded under the Act occurred at the organizational unit level, although unawareness and indifference were not as prevalent at the unit level as they were at the institutional level. For instance, an interviewee stated:

> Most faculty members in this department aren't even aware of what we are doing. A few individuals are involved in various projects, but the rest aren't aware.

Unawareness of faculty members at the organizational unit level occurred when a project director neither involved other faculty members nor shared information about the project within the organizational unit. Others claimed that unawareness of departmental faculty members was caused by the location of the developmental effort within the institution. One interviewee reported:

> The attitude of the faculty members is positive to the extent to which they know about it. The total faculty in the department is not involved because of the fact that Title I (HEA, 1965) is housed in Cooperative Extension instead of in academic units.

Having a positive attitude at the organizational unit level toward community service seems to indicate that there is a supportive reference group for project directors and for the developmental efforts which they undertake as a result of funding provided under the Act. Sometimes organizational units that were positive toward community service sought funding under the Act. At other times organizational units favorable to community service were formed to conduct projects funded under the Act. Interviewees described the favorable effects of positive attitudes of faculty members at the organizational unit level as follows:

> Leadership in the faculty ranks tends to be concentrated among persons in a few departments. Faculty members in those departments have been in favor of community service for some time. Projects funded under Title I (HEA, 1965) undertaken in those departments have tended to be successful.

> We worked through departmental units in which the majority of the faculty members had a prior commitment to community service. They had a desire to do community service because they believe in it, regardless of the availability of funding or the campus's commitment to it.

In contrast, a negative faculty attitude toward community service at the organizational unit level was found to be a limiting influence. If the faculty members in a department or other organizational unit in which a project funded under the Act was conducted were negative or indifferent to community service, it reportedly not only made it difficult to involve them in community service, but it also was unlikely that a colleague in the unit who was active in such a project would fare well in merit review and promotion considerations.

Interviewees were asked, "What kind of involvement with community service is most likely to be viewed favorably by faculty members here?" Usually, faculty members viewed community service favorably when it:

1. Intersected their own areas of interest and expertise,
2. Had the possibility of leading to research and was useful in the classroom context,
3. Was formally rewarded through consideration for promotion, through some form of financial reward for service, or through release time,
4. Serviced a target population with which the faculty members felt comfortable.

As indicated in Appendix H, faculty attitudes at the organizational unit level were significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, linkage, and image, and with strengthening of faculty involvement. These associations were based primarily on data obtained in Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota, states in which developmental efforts were concentrated in academic departments or other organizational units. Having a supportive reference group at the unit level was found to be especially important for the success of these efforts.

Based also on data obtained in Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee, faculty attitude at the organizational unit level was significantly associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement. Although the developmental efforts conducted in these states were more interdisciplinary and less concentrated in a single unit, a supportive reference group moderately facilitated institutional involvement.

STATUS OF THE PROJECT DIRECTOR

Interviewees were asked to describe the status of project directors and the relationship between that status and strengthening and continuation. Respondents indicated that project directors were usually faculty members, occasionally administrators, and, in a very few instances, students.

According to interviewees, the status of project directors ranged from high to low. Concerning project directors with high status, interviewees stated:

> His status is very high. He is respected around here. His word is always good, and people know it.

> He is the director of the Office of Continuing Education and Special Programs. His status on campus is very high. He is one of the "chosen." He possesses a real sense of charisma because he has rapport with people both in the community and in the university. Because he is part Cherokee, his multicultural background helps in his relations with the Cherokee community.

> He has tremendous status. He is the director of the Urban Studies Program. He is very involved in the community and is a personal friend of the president and vice-president for academic affairs. He has a great deal of experience and competence in working with federal grants. He is a full professor and is highly regarded by his peers on campus.

In some instances, respondents indicated that the status of the project director was moderate. A typical response follows:

> I have moderate status. The problem is that most people in this institution don't know what I'm doing, and their lack of awareness means that the success I have in this has had little effect.

In still other instances, respondents indicated that the status of the project director was low. An example of such a statement follows:

> Our project director has low status as an instructor in the speech department.

In addition to distinguishing between high, moderate, and low status of project directors, respondents also differentiated between what they seemed to call official status and personal status. When interviewees referred to official status, they mentioned the rank, title, position, or assigned responsibility of the project director. For example, one interviewee stated:

> He is at the level one below the chief academic officer for the institution. If he were any lower, he would have no clout. If he were any higher, it would be trivially absurd for the size of his program.

When interviewees referred to what they called personal status project directors, they included: (1) the number and intensity of their positive personality attributes, e.g., "good emotional media," "charisma," "outgoing, enthusiastic, aggressive, energetic nature," and "the ability to listen and to communicate," (2) the extent to which they were known, respected, and had credibility among peers, subordinates, superiors, and members of the community, (3) the extent to which they were viewed by others as having competence, experience, and expertise, and (4) their ability to serve as role models for others through their involvement with community problem-solving activities. An example of personal status is:

> He is an expert at listening. He is viewed as a person who cares. He has good emotional media. He makes people in the community feel that he likes them and wants to help with community problems. He is not at all presumptuous and has a way of dissipating the fears or threats felt or imagined by community people.

In some instances, respondents referred to both official and personal status of project directors. Examples of typical responses include:

> The project director holds an associate professorship in the College of Urban Design and Planning. Because of this, he has a great deal of academic respectability. He is also very knowledgeable, has a good personality, works well with people, and is interested in community service.

> He is highly respected both because of his faculty status and because of his individual personality.

> I am a full professor and the director of an academic program. I also have high personal status because of my strong base in the community.

In describing the relationship between the status of project directors and strengthening and continuation, interviewees indicated that status tended to be a facilitating and, occasionally, a crucial influence. Some interviewees noted, in particular, the need for project directors to have official status. Interviewees stated, for example:

> Having faculty rank opened doors. For example, I can offer credit for courses because I am a faculty member.

> Here there are certain restrictions on who becomes a project director. Only tenured faculty members are allowed to direct projects. The reason for this regulation is to ensure that the institution protects itself from the problems of having a project fail because the project director might want to leave in the midst of a project for a tenured position elsewhere.

> As a department head and a project director it was easy for me to get the project going. If I had not been a department head, I would have had to sell the project idea to my department head and then to my dean. I was in a better position to sell the staff and get faculty members involved in the project.

In a few instances, interviewees claimed that official status had no bearing on any strengthening and/or continuation outcomes. For example, interviewees stated:

> I truly believe that status has nothing to do with strengthening or continuing as results of the Title I (HEA, 1965) effort.

- I really don't feel that the status I might have as director of counseling services or the project director's status within her own department really has strengthened our Title I efforts.

  The status of the project director is irrelevant here. The hierarchy here is not very high. There is little spread between the high and the low. Cooperation is the key thing that makes a project go.

A large number of respondents indicated, however, that, while official status contributed in some instances to strengthening and continuation outcomes, personal status was the key ingredient leading to strengthening and continuation. The following statements illustrate this point:

> The project director was at the same time a department chairperson. This was no great enhancement. Rather, it was his personal leadership abilities that were more influential than his rank or status in terms of establishing what was strengthened as a result of efforts funded under the Act.
>
> Both of our project directors are full professors. It is more a function of their enthusiastic and energetic personalities than their rank as full professors that makes their projects successful.
>
> Our project director has faculty rank and tenure. He has had a major influence not because of his faculty standing but because of his particular expertise and because of his personality.
>
> I think that official status has made some difference in terms of our ability to do things in regard to this project. But probably the more important factor is the personalities of individuals involved in such efforts. Both our project directors and our institutional coordinator have the right types of process skills and can effectively work and communicate with community groups and individuals within our institution.
>
> The effectiveness of our project director depends on his ability to communicate and work well with other faculty members.
>
> I have faculty rank, but I don't think this is anywhere near as important as my long-standing ties with the community and various organizations.
>
> I don't feel that official status of project directors is an important criterion for strengthening and continuation. I believe that the experience of such individuals matters more because individuals who have a great deal of experience tend to serve as role models for others within their departments.

In the majority of instances, respondents claimed that high status (official, personal, or both) of project directors related directly to various forms of strengthening and continuation. For example, interviewees claimed that faculty status of a project director was a key factor leading to strengthened and continued faculty involvement. Typical responses include:

> I think being a peer and friend has made it easier to sell the project to other faculty members and to get a more candid response.
>
> I am a tenured faculty member. I think it is very important for a project director to have faculty rank and closeness to other faculty members. If this is the case, other faculty members are more apt to become involved.
>
> Our project director is an instructor. I think the fact that he teaches helps to get other faculty members involved, partly because he is seen as one of them and partly because he is known and respected. I don't think there would be any difference in the success of our programs if he were an associate professor.

> Without academic status there is no hope for continuation of Title I (HEA, 1965) activities.

> I believe that having an academic position is important in getting other faculty members involved.

In other instances, interviewees indicated that they thought having high official status without faculty support tended to limit strengthening and continuation, as reported by one interviewee:

> His high official status definitely helps strengthening and continuation, but his lack of personal status tends to hurt because he is unable to obtain faculty support.

When project directors had joint appointments and broad institutional recognition, it broadened the scope of available resources which, in turn, led to greater strengthening and continuation of their efforts.

> I am the coordinator for an educational television program and a professor. I am also the project director for Title I (HEA, 1965). This versatility, plus our high esteem in the eyes of the president, have given us the freedom to tap resources for our program.

Broad institutional recognition of project directors, in addition to increasing available resources, strengthened faculty involvement and linkage with the community, as illustrated by the following statement:

> He has a two-part appointment, partially in Extension and partially in an academic department. This gives him credibility in the community as well as among faculty members in the department. We were able to utilize the department's equipment as well as the faculty's consulting services.

In a number of instances, high status in the institution reportedly led to increased top-level support which, in turn, led to strengthening and continuation of efforts. The following statements illustrate this point:

> Because of his high position, he is able to contribute to the continuation of Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts by working with top-level administrators and showing them the relationship of Title I to other responsibilities, concerns, and programs of the college.

> His status is high. By being in the administrative office of the president, the project director had contacts. This opens doors for him and improves the chance of continuation.

Frequently, lack of status was described as a hindering influence. For example, interviewees stated:

> The project director was an assistant instructor. He does not have status as a faculty member. He has been able to garner only minor respect for his activities from college faculty members. He obviously lacks credentials for credibility in the eyes of the faculty. This lack hurt Title I efforts.

> It is a shame that the individual project director's status is not higher. If it were, he could command internal and external support to provide needed education relevant to the needs of aging persons in the community and those who work with them.

As indicated in Appendix H, the official status alone of the project director in the institution was significantly *negatively* associated with strengthening and continuation of the instructional program. This statistical finding, which

was neither supported nor contradicted by the qualitative data, may be explained by the possible reluctance of project directors who were administrators to encourage academic innovations which were perceived as possibly jeopardizing valued academic traditions and prerogatives.

The official and personal status of the project director in both the institution and the community was positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional and faculty involvement, instructional program, and image. The positive association with instructional program suggests that the personal status of the project director is a more powerful factor relative to this outcome than official status.

Both qualitative and quantitative findings indicated that official and personal status are important influences. High *official* status has its greatest effect in enabling project directors to interact effectively with administrators and faculty members who make critical institutional decisions. High *personal* status has its greatest impact on faculty involvement and instructional program, while status in the community affects strengthening and continuation of image to a greater degree.

MANNER OF FUNDING

Each of the states in which interviewing was conducted had a somewhat different approach to funding projects under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. The manner of funding under the Act varied widely in terms of size of grants and the duration of the funding period. Grants ranged from as little as $500 for one year to $105,000 for five years. Sometimes developmental efforts were funded for as little as $1,900 for three years. Others were funded in excess of $25,000 for a single year.

Interviewees were asked to describe the effect of the manner of funding on strengthening and continuation. Their responses most frequently referred to the effect of: (1) the size of the grant, (2) the time frame of the grant, and (3) federal and state policies, requirements, and operations. A few responses addressed the effect of the manner of funding generally.

Size of Grants

The most frequent observation about the size of the grants was that they were too small. In most instances respondents indicated that the size of the grants funded under the Act needed to be increased in order to facilitate community problem-solving efforts. Examples of such responses include:

> We need more money to enable the institution to create community service offices and/or centers and to have greater impact.

> The amount of money is too small really to get into comprehensive programs of specialized training for legislative officials. We simply can't do large projects with it.

> In this particular project we were only able to scratch the surface in the light of the extent of the need for educational assistance relevant to community problem solving. The smallness of the grant severely restricted its effectiveness.

Not all interviewees, however, considered relatively small grants as restrictive. For instance, interviewees in one institution stressed that receiving a large amount of funding for developmental purposes is unnecessary and can even be unwise, since an extensive developmental grant can breed dependency which, in turn, can inhibit continuation.

As indicated in Appendix H, the size of grants was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of faculty involvement and with strengthening of institutional involvement, instructional program, and linkage.

Although some interviewees reported significant impacts using small grants, most felt that moderate to large grants were more likely to produce strengthening and continuation. However, large grants, particularly if they are repeated year after year, can breed dependency and inhibit continuation.

Time Frame of Grants

Many interviewees commented about the time frame of grants. According to several administrators, one year is not long enough for a project to prove itself. Furthermore, reapplication occurs early in the year, long before anyone can tell whether the project merits refunding. Another administrator said that short-term funding causes project personnel to be more involved in applying for the next year's grant than in working with the current year's project. According to respondents:

> We have worked on a one-year basis for four years. We thought each year could have been our last. Had we known that our funding would have continued, we would have been able to commit ourselves more intensely and done more and better long-range planning.

> Receiving money on a yearly basis from the federal government has tended to limit the continuation of the projects.

> A two-year basis for grants would help us establish our program more stably. It would help also if we could keep our same project topic areas each year so that we could build on what we have begun.

> Grants ought to be larger and should contain provision for continuation beyond one year. You need at least a three-year period to do anything.

> Better planning is possible with longer-term funding.

The interviewees mentioned other justifications for a longer grant period. Some noted that in institutions with only a limited history of community service activities it takes longer than one year to develop institutional support for such activities. Similarly, it takes two or three years to establish hard money positions begun with soft money. According to one interviewee:

> By the time an individual project has concluded its first year, it is too late to fund a person in a hard-line position for the coming year. Any hard money position established would start no sooner than the beginning of the third year of the project.

Another respondent, who justified a longer grant period by the greater programmatic risk taking it would encourage, stated:

> Controversial projects generally need a longer time period to generate acceptance and build support in a community and in an institution of higher education.

The grant periods typically have begun on July 1 and, therefore, have not coincided with the academic year. As a result the summer months were often wasted. A few of the interviewees who spoke about this problem recommended beginning the grant period on either September 1 or January 1.

As indicated in Appendix H, the length of funding was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, with strengthening of linkage, and with continuation of faculty involvement and instructional program.

Both the qualitative and quantitative findings from this study indicated that developmental efforts funded for longer than one year had a greater chance for continuation than one-year projects. However, long-term refunding for similar developmental efforts can breed dependency and inhibit planning for continuation.

Federal and State Policies, Requirements, and Operations

In reference to federal and state policies, requirements, and operations, many interviewees recommended greater flexibility to allow for more discretion in the use of these developmental funds. Other respondents encouraged more explicit regulations and clearer state guidelines regarding fiscal do's and don'ts, including the amount of overhead an institution or other administrative or organizational structure could take from grants. One respondent indicated:

> I would want a clearer definition of guidelines. Right now they are too vague. We never are sure what can and cannot be done.

There was extensive agreement among interviewees that the method of selecting the proposals to be funded was a thorny issue. There was general agreement that the criteria should be made explicit and as free from political considerations as possible. The following comments illustrate the desire to have explicit selection criteria:

> There should be a formula allocation at the state level so that everybody gets a fair share of the pie. As it is, the largest grant of $30,000 was given to a junior college.

> It is well known that our faculty has specific expertise in research and in proposal writing that other institutions in the state do not have. Our faculty became suspicious when projects of poor quality from other institutions were funded. There should be clear understanding on what constitutes a fundable proposal and on what basis the Title I (HEA, 1965) funds are being distributed.

I would identify sociogeographic areas within the state and give a proportion of the Title I funds to each segment. Or I would distribute funds impartially on a merit basis. The decision should be based on consensus or officially adopted policy of the Coordinating Council of Higher Education.

In several instances interviewees stated that the manner of funding could be improved at the state level. Some respondents indicated the need to curtail or eliminate the amount of detailed reporting. Typical responses included:

The manner has had an adverse effect. The minutia involved in reporting has had a particularly adverse effect.

We need flexibility in building strategies for what the community leaders want us to do. We need to soften the process of reporting to allow for community input, not just at the front end but all through.

Other respondents indicated that they needed more advance notice or commitment of funding from the state level in order to plan more effectively. Responses suggesting this type of change in the manner of funding included:

We need to receive notice of availability of funding sooner so that we can plan more effectively. This notice should come from the federal level, not the state. Our communications with the state level are quite adequate. The national office needs to engage in more long-range planning so that institutions of higher education can make better plans for their Title I (HEA, 1965) projects.

We need to know as soon as possible when the funds will come. We need to know at the beginning of a budgetary year. We were scheduled to hear by June 1 but didn't receive notification until September. We should know by spring.

Earlier notification of funding by the state would help. We also need information regarding priorities and directions from Washington.

In a few cases respondents indicated that the reimbursement system related to funding provided under the Act limited strengthening and continuation of those efforts. Respondents indicated insufficient funds were available from other sources to cover expenses until the funds were received. The fact that funds were received late hindered project efforts. Interviewees stated:

The state is always late in notification of grants. Most programs start and then must be reimbursed when funding comes in.

Reimbursement makes reporting difficult. We should receive the money at the beginning of the quarter rather than at the end.

There is always a delay, and we are forced to operate out of our own funds. We carry the program, and there isn't always enough cash on hand.

Some interviewees made observations about matching requirements. While a few respondents stated that they thought the matching requirements fostered institutional commitment to what was started, extended, or expanded by projects funded under the Act, others considered this requirement to be a source of aggravation, especially in times of tight money. In most instances interviewees claimed that the matching requirement was too high and that this caused difficulty in effectively implementing programs. Examples of this type of response include:

I don't know what it is now, but when I was administering Title I (HEA, 1965) the matching requirements were particularly hard for the college. If I remember right, the match was supposed to be 50 percent from the state and 50 percent from in-kind. I tried to change this to a 90-10 match when I was handling Title I.

The matching requirement of one-third is too great. It should be 90-10 instead of 66-33. We need funding for longer periods of time. This would allow us more latitude and flexibility in our program development.

The university matching portion has been difficult. We have had to use released time and secretarial help from other resource pools to conduct our activity. I have done the latter through a cooperative arrangement with the dean.

Assuming that some form of matching will continue to be required, some interviewees suggested that institutional commitment would be facilitated if the match were limited to hard money.

In most instances respondents stated that the mere fact that they had received funding under the Act, regardless of the particular manner of funding, contributed to the strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement in community problem-solving activities. The following statements illustrate this type of response:

The manner of funding was helpful in providing discretionary dollars to do things we couldn't have done otherwise.

Title I (HEA, 1965) got us off to a running start on community service activities.

The manner of funding allowed additional personnel and application of time to our public service effort. It speeded up the process, and it paid for part of my salary.

What we have achieved simply could not have been done without it. We would still be doing continuing professional education for teachers. The funding isn't sufficient to take care of all our needs (faculty salaries and traveling arrangements), but it sure has helped.

In many cases interviewees claimed that the manner of funding contributed to the strengthening and continuation of faculty involvement in community problem-solving efforts. Because of the availability of funding under the Act, many faculty members were able to receive pay for their involvement in such efforts. According to interviewees:

I was able to pay faculty members for moderating panels and for participating in evaluation.

Title I (HEA, 1965) funds have been used to pay overload salaries.

In a very few instances, interviewees claimed that the manner of funding made no difference to strengthening and continuation. These individuals stated that there was no association between the manner of funding and the positive or negative nature of outcomes. Typical responses included:

The manner of Title I (HEA, 1965) funding doesn't make much difference. The ideas are more important than the money.

The manner of funding has not made much difference. Our budget has great flexibility.

The manner in which Title I was funded never really had much effect on strengthening and continuation of those efforts.

Federal and state policies, requirements, and operations were not tested for statistical association with outcomes because of their diversity and complexity.

In short, qualitative findings indicated that interviewees encouraged more explicit regulations and guidelines. Several revisions for the allocation of funds under the Act within the states were proposed.

Regarding the manner of funding in general, the size and time frame of grants were found to have a major effect on strengthening and continuation. Very small grants usually were insufficient in institutions trying to develop new community service programs, and supplementary in institutions with well-established programs. Large grants tended to foster a sense of security, but not necessarily institutional commitment.

The length of funding was also an important factor. Without renewal funding under the Act, one-year developmental efforts were difficult to continue because the necessary level of institutional and community acceptance rarely was achieved in one year. Long-term funding, in some cases, tended to inhibit planning for continuation. In other cases, long-term funding provided an atmosphere in which careful planning for continuation occurred.

INITIATION OF THE PROJECT

Interviewees were asked to identify the initiator of the projects funded by Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Their responses indicated that projects were initiated by: faculty members, some of whom were already project directors under other funding; the administration; the community; and the state, through the agency responsible for the administration of the state program developed under the Act.

Faculty members were instrumental in the initiation of many projects. Typically, they recognized a need and developed a program to meet it. According to interviewees:

> I was aware of the social agencies, so I asked other faculty members, students, and social agencies to define some of their needs so we could connect.
>
> This department prides itself in solving real-life problems. So my staff and I wrote to fifty small manufacturing companies throughout the state. Identification of the problems was done by the companies contacted. We developed our project from this information.
>
> The needs were identified by an organizational unit of this institution, and the project director chose one of the identified needs around which to build the project.
>
> The center established a number of needs. Thirteen projects emerged as high priority interests. I chose one, searched for funding, and found that Title I (HEA, 1965) would fund it.

As indicated in Appendix H, initiation by faculty members was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of instructional program and image, with strengthening of linkage, and with continuation of institutional involvement.

In many instances, projects funded under the Act were initiated by a high-ranking administrator of the institution. The initiation occurred because of recognition of community needs or because of potential institutional benefits. In a few instances, the administrator not only initiated the project but also helped to shape the nature of the effort. Interviewees stated:

> Initially, the president said it was needed. The program came out of administration and was recognized at this level.

> What the president did was to choose high-gain projects so that we could be recognized publicly for the results that come out of those projects. It was a time of opportunity for us, and still is. What pays off here is action, getting results.

Many interviewees reported that, when projects were initiated by administrators, what was started, extended, or expanded under the Act was likely to continue. However, most of the qualitative data did not support this finding. In many instances, initiation by administrators produced half-hearted efforts by faculty members, especially if the administration was not committed to community service in general.

As indicated in Appendix H, initiation of projects by the administration was not significantly associated with any of the strengthening and continuation outcomes.

In very few instances, the activity was initiated by the community and supplemented by a project funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. This type of project initiation was most likely to occur in institutions utilizing a community development approach and functioning community advisory councils. Community initiation was most likely to occur when there was exceptionally strong community interest in particular issues. Because there were few instances of community initiation, statistical analysis was not considered valid.

In each state, a designated agency was responsible for developing a statewide program on community service through Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. According to the Act:

> The state plan shall set forth a comprehensive, coordinated, and statewide system of community service programs designed to assist in the solution of community problems in rural, urban, or suburban areas . . . .
>
> (Regulations, Title I, Higher Education Act of 1965, Sect. 173.2)

To meet this requirement, most state agencies established general themes to which proposed projects were expected to relate. These themes were usually established through the use of state advisory committees which identified state needs and priority concerns.

Because institutions of higher education valued their autonomy, specific themes selected by the state agency were viewed as being restrictive and were resisted. Projects funded under the Act that were initiated under these conditions tended to be undertaken without enthusiasm or institutional support. Interviewees said:

> The state agency calls statewide meetings and tries to identify needs and define what to do. Thus, the individual project directors must comply with whatever is set.
>
> The themes are not workable. I'm disgusted with Title I (HEA, 1965). It's inflexible.

The problem of restrictively applied state themes was often cited by interviewees as a limiting factor. One interviewee stated:

> We must stop trying to build educational programs on a statewide basis. For example, certain problems such as race relations that might be relevant in one city are not relevant in this part of the state.

While a few interviewees, particularly from private colleges, believed there was too little flexibility to develop programs to meet grassroots needs, others felt that the themes were broad enough to allow adaptation to local conditions. Typical of this position is the following statement:

> The needs to be addressed come from the collective mind of the consortium across the state. I have varied the project somewhat in dealing with low income groups. I have provided a list of possible subjects and asked participants to select their priorities.

As indicated in Appendix H, state initiation was significantly *negatively* associated with strengthening of instructional program and continuation of linkage and image. These quantitative findings supported the qualitative findings that prescriptive state policies which do not allow a measure of operational flexibility in the institution tend to be dysfunctional.

In short, strengthening and continuation were enhanced by having those who were to implement the program, usually faculty members, involved by the initiator in its development.

INSTITUTIONS' PRIOR EXPERIENCE WITH COMMUNITY SERVICE AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Interviewees were asked to describe their perceptions of the nature and extent of community service and continuing education in the institution before projects funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 were undertaken. Responses ranged from extensive prior involvement to little or no previous community service or continuing education.

In some institutions, interviewees reported that one or more types of community service and continuing education had been extensively provided for many years. Particularly in land-grant institutions, interviewees usually stated that their institutions had been involved over the years in an extensive array of community service and continuing education programs, some of which were relevant to community problem solving, particularly through their continuing education units.

In other institutions with either short- or long-term involvement in community service and continuing education, most or all of the efforts were

focused on individual self-improvement, rather than on community problem solving. The limited efforts to assist in community problem solving were handled by individuals on a request basis. Interviewees stated:

> There used to be very little continuing education and community service, and what there was was limited to some short courses.

> There was a little bit of community service related to community problem solving, but it was primarily on a reaction basis. There were specific responses to off-campus requests, and they were sporadic at best.

In still other institutions, there was no involvement in community service or continuing education of any kind prior to the mid-1960s. This was particularly true in new community colleges and in private liberal arts colleges. Interviewees in these institutions stated:

> Community service was simply nonexistent.

> There was very little community service or continuing education when I came in 1962. There was absolutely no interest in community service as it was not considered a role of a private college.

When these institutions received funds under the Act to move into community service relevant to community problem solving, many reportedly did so willingly, some hoping thereby to attract more students or additional revenues; others did so in response to community or student pressures.

> But we really started developing our institution along these lines with the advent of Title I (HEA, 1965). We were trying to reach the outlying areas. Title I just helped us go ahead with the program we were already commencing.

> The community demanded something be done. I developed a Title I project for continuing and adult education in 1967. It's been sustained since that time.

As indicated in Appendix H, the extent of institutional prior experience with community service and continuing education was *not* significantly associated with any of the strengthening and continuation outcomes described in Chapter II.

In institutions with extensive prior experience with community service and continuing education, there was a strong belief that the experience was a facilitating factor. They pointed to expertise that was available and to the tradition of community service on which they could build as factors which could help sustain what was started, extended, or expanded in projects funded under the Act.

> Chances of continuing this type of education are enhanced when there has been a prior history of that type of community service effort in the institution, as there has been here.

> The tradition of community service and continuing education and the tradition of experiential education in this institution, along with our emphasis on public service, act in a supportive manner to keep things going that were started under Title I (HEA, 1965).

In some instances, prior experience with community service and continuing education may well have been powerful, facilitating influences. In others, prior experience with community service and continuing education that was *not* related to community problem solving seemed to be powerful enough to inhibit efforts to develop forms of community service and continuing education that were explicitly relevant to community problem solving.

> We have had a long history of continuing education of this type for adults. Teaching typical continuing education classes for adults gets 90 percent of the priority, while community problem solving gets only 10 percent.

In other words, whether or not prior experience with community service and continuing education was a facilitating or limiting influence appears to have depended on the nature of that experience.

In contrast, projects funded under the Act in institutions with little or no prior experience with community service or continuing education had a very different tradition with which to contend, namely academic education provided for students in the resident instruction program. Projects funded under the Act often required such major commitment and support to get started in those institutions that, if strengthening occurred, momentum was provided which facilitated continuation.

> We intend to continue our project. More and more faculty members are becoming involved in experiential education as it related to their subject matter. At first the idea of community problem solving was rejected as watered-down education, but those who are involved have become excited about it.

In some cases there were pressures in those institutions to co-opt community service and continuing education programs to serve the needs of academic education provided in a traditional manner for resident students.

In short, extensive prior experience with community service and continuing education sometimes was found to facilitate and at other times to limit efforts to start, extend, or expand community service and continuing education explicitly related to community problem solving.

SUMMARY

Of the influences described in Chapter III, faculty attitudes at the institutional and at the organizational unit levels and the status of the project director were associated with most of the strengthening and continuation outcomes.

Faculty attitudes toward community service were important at either the institutional or organizational unit level, depending on the nature of the developmental effort. If the project required participation by faculty members not concentrated in one or two departments, the reference group was broad, and institutional faculty attitudes were important. Conversely, if the developmental effort was focused in one department, the reference group was narrow, and organizational unit faculty attitudes were important. The appropriate

faculty reference group, when favorably disposed to community service, served as a facilitating influence for the project director. When opposed to community service, the faculty reference group was able to limit severely strengthening and continuation resulting from projects funded under the Act.

The status of project directors was almost as important an influence as faculty attitudes. Relatively high official status in the institution usually facilitated relationships with administrators who were in positions to release institutional resources relevant to community problem solving. Relatively high personal status had a greater effect on strengthening faculty involvement and on incorporating community problem-solving components into the instructional program. In most projects, strengthening and continuation depended to a large extent on the ability of project directors to release relevant institutional resources.

Many interviewees thought that top-level administrative support was a powerful facilitating factor. Analysis of data from this study indicated that while top-level administrative support was important it was not usually essential for most types of strengthening. However, it was significantly associated with continuation because of its potential effect on the allocation of institutional resources.

Top-level administrative support seemed to have a pervasive effect. Favorable support affected institutional involvement and subtly contributed to other influences and processes. Favorable support, however, did not by itself ensure strengthening and continuation. Project directors with expertise and enthusiasm were very important, and top-level administrative support was most effective in hiring people with community service competencies.

The manner of funding projects varied extensively from state to state and from project to project. Interviewees indicated that they generally would favor enlarging the size of the grants, extending the funding period, increasing the flexibility in administering projects, and improving the clarity of the guidelines. Analysis of data indicated that larger grants were associated with most of the strengthening outcomes but with few of the continuation outcomes. Funding lasting longer than one year resulted in greater strengthening and continuation because it permitted time for the development necessary for continuation. Successful projects occurred in each of the states, despite the fact that each state had a somewhat different manner of funding within the general guidelines of the Act. Similarly, projects in which relatively little strengthening and continuation reportedly occurred were found under each funding pattern.

The role of the initiator of the project was not found to be a major influence. Projects that were initiated by faculty members tended to have the best access to and match with necessary resources and personnel at the

operational level. Projects initiated by administrators or by the state less often resulted in strengthening and continuation.

Prior institutional experience with community service and continuing education sometimes facilitated and sometimes inhibited developmental efforts funded under the Act. At best, expertise and statewide networks could be utilized. At worst, traditional forms of community service and continuing education tended to co-opt efforts to develop community service and continuing education relevant to community problem solving. Clearly, prior institutional experience with community service was not prerequisite to conducting successful projects funded under the Act.

In short, the most powerful influences seem to be associated with attitudes of the faculty and status of project directors.

Chapter IV: Processes

In this study, actions that could be taken and decisions that could be made during the course of a project to facilitate strengthening and continuation were called processes. Interviewees were asked to describe processes that were used to strengthen and continue what was started, extended, or expanded in projects funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965.

The processes most frequently referred to by interviewees were the following:

1. Performing change agent roles,
2. Developing administrative support,
3. Developing faculty support,
4. Assessing needs—types of needs assessed,
5. Assessing needs—processes,
6. Involving the community,
7. Obtaining supplemental resources,
8. Integrating projects into organizational structures,
9. Selecting project topics,
10. Identifying institutional resources,
11. Utilizing methods of delivery.

A description of each of these processes, including the alternative ways that each was implemented, is presented in the remainder of this chapter. Qualitative and quantitative findings concerning the association between each process and outcome are also presented. Statistical associations are summarized in Appendix H. Methods used to analyze data in this study are described in Appendix A.

PERFORMING CHANGE AGENT ROLES

Interviewees were asked to describe how project directors had performed as change agents. A review of responses suggested the use of Havelock's change agent model (Havelock, 1973, pp. 8-9) as a basis for analyzing the data concerning change agent roles performed.

Havelock described four main change agent roles: catalyst, solution giver, process helper, and resource linker. All of these roles are depicted in Fig. 3 as they pertain to efforts to start, extend, or expand community service and continuing education relevant to community problem solving in projects funded under the Act.

It should be noted that the change agent as catalyst, process helper, and solution giver can work within either the institution of higher education or the community, or in both, to assist in releasing educational resources for community problem solving. The change agent as resource linker seeks to function transactively between the institution of higher education and the community.

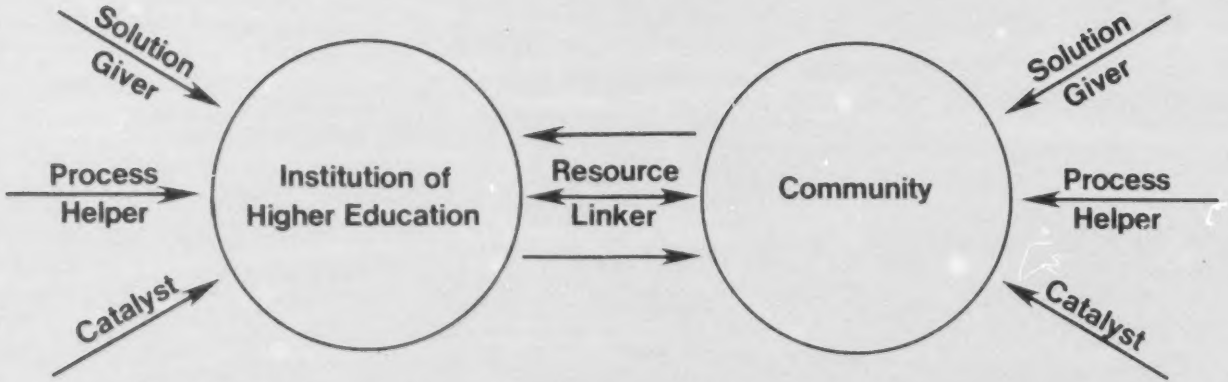


Fig. 3: *Change Agent Roles Relevant to Title I (HEA, 1965) Efforts* (adapted from Havelock, 1973, pp. 8-9).

Interviewees described some project directors as concentrating mainly on being a *catalytic* force. According to Havelock:

> . . . Some change agents are needed to prod and pressure the system to be less complacent and to start working on its serious problems . . . . They do not necessarily have the answers, but they are dissatisfied with things the way they are. By making their dissatisfaction known and by upsetting the "status quo," they energize the problem-solving process; they get things started (1973, p. 8).

Sometimes project directors played the catalytic change agent role in the community, sometimes in the institution, and sometimes in both spheres. As described by interviewees:

> The project director has always taken the lead and initiated change. His efforts have a rather catalytic effect on the community.
>
> The project director did a lot of "arm twisting" to get us to respond to more requests from surrounding communities for assistance in community problem solving.
>
> The project director was the catalyst for the development of a new center for continuing education within our institution.
>
> The project director was very charismatic. He got university people excited which led to brainstorming. He met with community leaders and got them involved. He inspired graduate students to do community work.

Some interviewees described project directors in their institutions as having been *solution givers*. Havelock has observed:

> Many people who want to bring about change have definite ideas about what the change should be; they have solutions and they would like to have others adopt those solutions. However, being an effective solution giver involves more than simply having a solution. You have to know when and how to offer it, and you have to know enough about it to help the client adapt it to his needs (Havelock, 1973, p. 9).

The solution giver role was most often identified with those project directors who had specialized expertise. Interviewees described project directors who acted as solution givers within their institution and within the community, but very often interviewees cautioned about the solution giver approach to effecting change. Concerning the change agent as solution giver, interviewees stated:

> Our project directors were specialists within their particular fields. They were able to communicate with people within a community about their areas of specialization.
>
> The project director frequently received telephone calls about particular problems in the area of his expertise. He became something of a "Dear Abby." People came to him for information and advice. He built parts of this information-need into courses offered.
>
> The project director pushed media and the use of video as some of the resources to be used in solving community problems.
>
> I think the project directors here could be solution givers, but they probably would not be as effective. They may or may not have the necessary answers. It is often too easy to identify solutions before understanding problems.

By far the largest number of interviewees described the main change agent role of project directors in their institutions in a way that suggests what Havelock has described as the *process helper* role. Havelock has noted that the change agent as process helper:

> . . . assists in the processes of problem solving and innovating . . . Because most clients are not experts on the "how to" of change, they can be helped greatly by people who are skilled in the various stages of problem solving (Havelock, 1973, p. 9).

When project directors were described as being process helpers, interviewees generally observed that those project directors were not necessarily subject matter experts nor were they directly involved in community problem solving. Rather, they were specialists in facilitating through education the acquisition of skills in the problem-solving process. The process helper can provide valuable assistance in showing clients how to:

1. Recognize and define needs,
2. Diagnose problems and set objectives,
3. Acquire relevant resources,
4. Select or create solutions,
5. Adapt and install solutions,
6. Evaluate solutions to determine if they are satisfying clients' needs.

In some instances, clients were persons in the project director's institution who needed assistance to relate their knowledge to community problem solving. In other instances, clients were individuals in the community engaged in community problem solving, such as regional land-use planning commissioners or citizens on a community council. Interviewees stated:

> My own personal expertise is in the area of group processes and community development, which has certainly strengthened our efforts to show these community leaders process skills which might help them in future efforts. They began not only to ask questions but also to ask the right questions which would provide them with the resources or expertise for solution of problems. We were there to facilitate their understanding of the techniques that they could use that might be effective in reaching solutions to community problems.

> The Office of Continuing Education helps write proposals and consults with faculty members trying to write proposals. It does not write the proposals for other people.

> We try to teach the institutions that they can continue beyond Title I (HEA, 1965) and how to develop other sources of funds.

> The project director helps students learn the process of community development.

> The project director helped people within the institution and the community to develop the program.

The change agent role of some project directors, according to some interviewees, resembled what Havelock describes as a *resource linker*. According to Havelock, the change agent as resource linker:

> . . . is the person who brings people together, who helps clients find and make the best use of resources inside and outside their own system (Havelock, 1973, p. 9).

Interviewees stated:

> The project director played a facilitator role, trying to match inquiries by community agencies for assistance with relevant expertise in the university.
>
> The project director does not tell us what to do. He provides us with the information regarding the problems of individuals with whom he has communicated. He lets us act as the experts in our content areas.
>
> I am not an expert in the field, so I bring the relevant people together.
>
> The project director has made an impact because he has been able to draw on the support and resources of faculty members and others and to relate them to the community.
>
> In his many public roles, the project director knows a lot of people in the community. He knows their interests and abilities. When necessary, he seeks out their help for funding. At the same time, he draws upon people from the faculty to use their expertise as it relates to community problem solving.

Many interviewees stated that project directors in the process of performing as a change agent played more than one of the above roles. For instance, one project director described himself as having channeled information to faculty members in the form of printed articles; as having engaged in much informal conversation with faculty members; and, at other times, as having acted as a "gadfly." Some project directors performed all of the above roles both in their institution and in their community. A few interviewees noted a transition in their change agent roles during the developmental effort funded under the Act. Interviewees stated:

> I think in all the Title I (HEA, 1965) activities we have played some multiple roles. We have been the individuals that sensitize the community to the need for leadership training. We located individuals within the community, and we have trained them in the process skills necessary to become better or more effective community leaders.
>
> I feel it is the responsibility of the project director not only to be aggressive enough to create dialogue and discussion about the particular topic but also to be able to follow through in terms of identifying people who could provide some of the solutions and to assist others with the overall process.
>
> I will admit that initially my roles and responsibilities related to Title I were almost entirely focused on my developing relationships with the particular communities. This role slowly evolved to a stage at which now I can sit back and watch others to whom I hopefully have given some insight serve as effective community problem solvers. My goal in any effort that I have with the community is to be able eventually to orchestrate from a distance.

Statements of interviewees indicated the paramount importance of the project director performing multiple change agent roles. Interviewees indicated that they regarded the project directors as the key individuals in developmental efforts funded under the Act and that they have a major impact on the success of the efforts through not only the change agent roles performed but also the relative effectiveness with which such roles are performed. Interviewees stated:

> My overall development strategy as president was to hire a top person who had academic respectability, knew how to work in the institution, and also was an expert in community service. He was the prime mover. Our best continuing evidence is the center.
>
> The project director needles us, and, at the same time, he helps us get involved with the community. He works with the community, moreover, and helps persons there become involved with us. He facilitates and links. Sometimes this leads to frustration, but linkages are being made. The community service program is growing.
>
> What really works for us is the project director's personality and how he operates. He is respected in the institution and the community. He pushes when it is necessary; he helps with process; he provides solutions for the aged; and he brings in resources from parts of the state and the nation with which he alone in the institution has contact.
>
> Strengthening and continuation were achieved primarily through the efforts of the director, which has created an awareness in the community of their own need for help and an awareness on the part of faculty members who in turn got students interested in helping.

As indicated in Appendix H, statistical analysis confirmed the finding from the qualitative data that performing change agent roles was a key variable in achieving high strengthening and continuation outcomes. Performing multiple change agent roles in the institution and community was positively associated with all of the strengthening and continuation outcomes. In other words, project directors who operated in both the institution and the community and who performed many of the change agent roles (catalyst, solution giver, process helper, and resource linker) appropriately in each, generally were the ones who were most successful in bringing about strengthening and continuation. In contrast, project directors who played fewer change agent roles tended to be associated with projects in which less strengthening and continuation occurred. Analysis of the quantitative data indicated further:

1. Performing catalytic, process helper, and resource linker roles in the institution was positively associated with most outcomes. Performing as a solution giver in the institution was positively associated with fewer outcomes.
2. Performing catalytic and resource linker roles in the community was positively associated with institutional involvement, linkage, and image outcomes. Performing solution giver and process helper roles in the community was associated with few outcomes.

The change agent roles through which the project director interacted with the institution and community were associated qualitatively and quantitatively with other variables. Project directors who performed many roles in the institution understandably made greater efforts to develop faculty and administrative support for their activities. Project directors who performed many roles in the community also understandably tended to involve the community in a wider variety of methods of developing and implementing efforts funded under the Act.

All the qualitative and quantitative data supported the conclusion that the way in which a project director performs change agent roles is pivotal in developing the institution's ability to release its resources for community problem solving. In giving advice concerning ways to facilitate strengthening and continuation, several interviewees suggested that selecting a project director who could work effectively in the institution and the community is of paramount importance.

DEVELOPING ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

Interviewees were asked to describe methods that had been used to develop administrative support for what was started, extended, or expanded in projects funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. They indicated that efforts were made to develop administrative support by: (1) maintaining communication with top-level administrators, (2) using public relations and publicity techniques, (3) involving administrators in community service programs, and (4) fostering pressure in the institution or community.

Maintaining Communication with Top-Level Administrators

Many interviewees mentioned the use of periodic reports, formal or informal, as a technique to maintain communication with top-level administrators.

Project personnel used monthly, quarterly, and end-of-grant reports to serve as testimonials to the success of efforts funded under the Act. The reports, according to interviewees, generally created favorable administrative support for community service activities. For example, interviewees reported:

> We presented evidence in reports to the president showing that the training of people through our program has not only changed the level of knowledge about the problem addressed but also changed behavior of citizens. We also used reports from outside agencies that are federally funded to monitor behavior connected with this problem. Information provided from these sources helped strengthen community service in the institution with support coming right from the top of the institution.

> We keep higher-ups posted on what we are doing. Every two months I write a report which goes to the vice president and the department chairperson. I have tried to cultivate support for our Title I (HEA, 1965) activities through the visibility generated by these evaluation reports.

> We constantly evaluate, reevaluate, and constructively criticize our programs. These feedback mechanisms have not only improved the quality of our programs but also have served to build the support of administrators who, in turn, have encouraged continuation of our efforts.

Another technique used to maintain communication with administrators was the involvement of project personnel in councils and committees composed of key decision makers in the institution. Interviewees stated:

> We helped get project personnel appointed to committees on which they could keep faculty members and administrators informed about what was being accomplished

in projects funded under Title I (HEA, 1965) and how such results were valuable to the institution and the community.

As project coordinator I served on the University Executive Council which planned all educational activities related to continuing education and public service. The council is composed of the president and chairpersons from the various departments within the university. My contact with this council helped develop administrative support for our Title I efforts.

As indicated in Appendix H, maintaining communication with top-level administrators was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, linkage, and image and with continuation of faculty involvement. The qualitative data indicated that maintaining communication with top-level administrators was the most frequently used method of developing administrative support. It was accomplished formally through written reports in larger institutions and informally through personal conversations in smaller institutions. Periodic reporting demonstrated to administrators not only the value of the benefits accrued to both the institution and its faculty but also the increased visibility and number of community demands made on the institution as a result of its work in the community.

Using Public Relations and Publicity Techniques

A quite different method for obtaining administrative support consisted of the use of public relations and publicity techniques to catch the eye of administrators who would then, hopefully, be more inclined to provide institutional resources to supplement or continue what was started, extended, or expanded under the Act. Often the media were used to generate favorable publicity for the institution. For example, interviewees stated:

We developed communication networks with influential persons within the institution by sending frequent memos about the project activities, writing quarterly reports, and conducting information seminars. We made efforts to develop publicity that would bring credit to the institutions' gatekeepers, e.g., deans and department chairpersons.

We used a direct mail, newspaper, and general advertising campaign to gain visibility for our project in the institution and community.

Through the use of videotape presentations, series of newspaper articles, and community meetings, we have created visibility for both the faculty members and students involved in our Title I (HEA, 1965) project. Administrators have viewed this as good public relations for the university.

In the past we have used television extensively to dramatize the need for continuing education on a statewide basis and have tried to present the end results to the administration and to the legislature. One day we hired a television station for about eight hours and put on a major program. The basic strategy is to push the visibility of community service efforts.

As indicated in Appendix H, publicizing efforts funded under the Act through the media was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of instructional program, with strengthening of linkage and image, and with continuation of institutional and faculty involvement.

Publicizing through the media seemed to develop faculty and community support as well as administrative support. Media reached many constituencies in the institution and the community, and the visibility it provided for efforts funded under the Act had a generalized effect.

Involving Administrators in Community Service Programs

In a few instances, project personnel included administrators in various aspects of community service program development and implementation. Many administrators possessed expertise which was useful in efforts funded under the Act. Interviewees stated:

> We involved the dean of faculties in our planning activities. He was a strong advocate for Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts. His efforts on our behalf were important in building support from both the dean of our college and the department chairperson for my efforts. In addition he has made the project visible to the president.

> From the outset of Title I, we have strengthened the support of the administration by involving key administrators, faculty members, and staff on the Community Advisory Council, which has worked for four years with the community to develop Title I activities.

> We involved administrative personnel in projects funded under the Act so that they could provide first-hand testimony to the value of such efforts.

As indicated in Appendix H, involving administrators in community service programs was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional and faculty involvement and with strengthening of linkage and image.

Involving the institution's top-level administrators in efforts funded under the Act increased the credibility of Title I (HEA, 1965) as the type of activity in which faculty members should be involved. The involvement of these key decision makers also had a positive influence on the community's image of the institution. The community felt that with the involvement of key administrators the institution was willing to make more than a token commitment of a few faculty members in the resolution of its problems.

Fostering Pressure

Sometimes administrative backing was sought by acquiring support of individuals and groups within institutions and communities who would hopefully pressure the administration to continue what was started, extended, or ex-

panded as a result of projects funded under the Act. For example, interviewees stated:

> When the project was scheduled to be terminated, the students made a concerted effort to request the continuation of the project by the institution.
>
> We developed strong pressure groups in the community that demanded continuation of worthwhile projects.
>
> The way in which I have tried to build administrative support is to create visibility for our efforts not only within the community we serve but also through conversations with persons in surrounding counties who then have expressed to my administrative superiors the need for similar activities in their counties.

Fostering pressure as a technique for developing administrative support was not tested for statistical association with outcomes because of the few times it was mentioned. Most interviewees considered other techniques to be less controversial and more effective.

Although the majority of project directors indicated they devoted time to increasing administrative support for their activities, several indicated they spent little, if any, time in such efforts. In institutions with a tradition of community service and continuing education and a mission which emphasizes serving the local community, the need to develop administrative support was minimal. Interviewees stated:

> The support is already there. Very little needs to be done. Community service is integral to the mission of the college.
>
> There is not much trouble in getting the support of the administrator of the Institute for Public Service, since our primary function is to serve the communities. Title I (HEA, 1965) allowed us to extend our efforts in these areas.

In addition, interviewees indicated that top-level administrators often supported their activities because they had previously been directors of continuing education and community service operations or had been associated with Title I (HEA, 1965) as state directors, institutional project directors, or consultants on projects.

> Our president was an advocate for our Title I (HEA, 1965) activities because he formerly had been in charge of Title I at another institution.
>
> Our dean of instruction was a former state Title I director, and, by virtue of his familiarity with Title I and his position within the institution, he has been able to impress upon our president the importance of continuing education and community service.

As indicated in Appendix H, developing administrative support by maintaining communication with administrators, publicizing efforts through the media, and involving administrators in community service programs were significantly positively associated, as a group, with all of the strengthening and continuation outcomes.

The qualitative data confirmed the importance of developing administrative support. Many interviewees indicated that by increasing or maintaining ad-

ministrative support administrators would be more likely to provide philosophic and budgetary support to supplement or continue what was started, extended, or expanded under the Act.

DEVELOPING FACULTY SUPPORT

Interviewees were asked to describe the processes used to gain or increase faculty involvement in and commitment to community service. Interviewees from the majority of institutions surveyed indicated they tried to develop faculty support through a variety of methods which most often included providing monetary or material rewards and educating faculty members about the value of community service. Other frequently mentioned incentives include encouraging student involvement, providing opportunities to expand one's capabilities, making appointments to advisory and academic committees, revising hiring and promotion practices, and including community service as part of assigned faculty load.

Monetary or Material Rewards

Interviewees indicated that released time, extra compensation, provision for use of materials, equipment, personnel otherwise unavailable, and the opportunity to develop consulting contacts were used as incentives. For example, interviewees stated:

> We use money from Title I (HEA 1965) to give faculty members grants from $300 to $500 to do community service projects. Some released time for faculty members is also available.
>
> We provide incentives for faculty members by offering them money to participate, giving faculty members access to supplies, and providing secretarial assistance not otherwise available.
>
> We are beginning to pay faculty members for their services instead of begging them. This is a source of moonlighting for them. Equipment acquisition through grants has been a motivating factor for faculty involvement.
>
> We gave certain faculty members released time to concentrate on their projects.
>
> Some faculty members are jealous of those who are able to do consulting generated by their community service contacts.

Providing monetary or material rewards was not significantly associated with any of the strengthening and continuation outcomes.

Educating Faculty Members to Community Service Opportunities

Efforts were made to educate faculty members about the opportunities for and value of community service activities through various techniques including

one-to-one conversations, memoranda and publicity, presentations before faculty meetings, and specially planned in-service meetings. Interviewees noted:

> We use class visitations and presentations to the student body, and we place articles in school newspapers and a weekly campus paper.
>
> We are able to get faculty members interested in our activities by conducting in-service training sessions at which faculty members can listen to individuals who have worked with successful projects describe the benefits reaped from such involvement.
>
> Another technique which I have used recently is a faculty retreat at which we discuss our capabilities to answer and solve problems in communities, as well as interdisciplinary approaches that might be most effective.

As indicated in Appendix H, educating faculty members about the opportunities and value of community service activities was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement and with continuation of faculty involvement. Both the qualitative and quantitative data indicated that faculty members need to be aware of the value of community service in order to become involved.

Student Involvement

Interviewees occasionally indicated that student involvement and the opportunity to support students were incentives for faculty members to become involved. Interviewees noted:

> The best way we found to involve faculty members was through student involvement, credit programs, and internships.
>
> Student volunteers talk to faculty members. We have thirty student volunteers talking with faculty members in classes.

Encouraging student involvement was not tested for statistical association with outcomes because of the few times that it was mentioned as an incentive for faculty support.

Opportunities to Expand One's Capabilities

Another incentive was the opportunity to improve teaching and research capabilities. According to interviewees:

> Sometimes I pick up new knowledge from practitioners attending the course in the community.
>
> Our efforts to get faculty members involved included using one individual as a model to demonstrate to other faculty members the valuable experience that Title I (HEA, 1965) was giving him in terms of expanding his research and teaching opportunities.
>
> Title I is a training ground for promotion.

As indicated in Appendix H, providing faculty members with opportunities to expand their capabilities was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, faculty involvement, and instructional program, and with strengthening of linkage and image.

Advisory and Academic Committees

In some projects, efforts were made to develop faculty support by: (1) placing involved faculty members on academic committees who in turn try to raise awareness of opportunities funded by Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965; and (2) asking faculty members to serve on advisory committees with the hope that they will want to become more involved in community service activities. According to interviewees:

> The dean of continuing education and community service has been a member of the Academic Affairs Committee — the most powerful of all committees. That's a plus factor. He has been able to explain the program. It has visibility.

> I think one of the most effective mechanisms we have used to gain faculty support has been the numerous advisory committees we have set up in which faculty members and prominent people in the community work together to build various programs.

Making appointments to advisory and academic committees was not tested for statistical association with the outcomes because of the few times that it was cited as having been used as an incentive for faculty support.

Hiring and Promotion Practices

In a few institutions alternative ways of conducting promotion and tenure reviews were developed to increase the likelihood that performance in community service would be rewarded by those making promotion and tenure decisions. Interviewees stated:

> We hire faculty members with the understanding that they will be involved in continuing education. Their participation is part of merit salary increase and tenure considerations.

> Being a project director provides an opportunity for faculty members to demonstrate potential administrative abilities. One such faculty member here is probably going to be appointed dean, in part because of the good work he has done as a project director.

> The dean interviews persons who are being hired to be sure that they want to be involved in community service.

Developing alternative ways of conducting tenure reviews was not tested for statistical association with the outcomes because of the few times that it was indicated as having been used as an incentive for faculty support.

Community Service as Part of Assigned Load

In a few institutions, faculty members were expected to participate in community service as part of their assigned load. The inclusion of community service efforts as part of assigned faculty load received a mixed reaction. Interviewees stated:

> Faculty members here do not view community service very highly. They seem to be looking for extra pay. All our community service efforts are part of the load, and we really do not think this is a good idea. We barely have time right now for our other tasks.

> I was hired on hard institutional money partly to do community service. One of the stipulations expressed when I was hired was that I was to find funds to do programs once Title I (HEA, 1965) funds ended. I have been told to conceive of Title I as a means of innovation and getting a foot into the field. Having a position funded by hard institutional funds but with part of my load explicitly in community service gives me a stable operating base.

> Participating in community service projects has become part of faculty members' load, not an extra assignment. There is no pressure to be involved, but no roadblocks either. There is a good feeling within our department about getting others involved, and a lot of enthusiasm is generated.

> The institution hires people with community service interests and abilities, and therefore a positive attitude for doing community service as part of the load it built in through hiring.

Including community service as part of assigned faculty load was cited too few times by interviewees to permit testing it for statistical association with the outcomes.

In short, some of those institutions which intentionally did nothing to develop faculty involvement seemed to be satisfied with the level of support they already had and therefore felt no need for additional incentives. Some felt additional involvement of faculty members might actually be a detriment to the project. Examples of interviewee responses include the following:

> I am satisfied with the level of faculty participation in community service (as stated by a college president).

> In our own project, few faculty members have been involved. The reason in our project was that by design we decided not to include too many faculty members initially in our efforts. We were afraid that we would scare off people in the community.

While monetary rewards and educating faculty members to community service opportunities were the most commonly cited techniques used to develop faculty support, providing financial rewards and opportunities for students was cited as having the greatest impact on strengthening and continuation of community service programs. According to many interviewees, providing financial incentives, at the least, seems necessary in order to develop and maintain faculty involvement in community service. Many interviewees stated that they thought that providing monetary rewards — either in the form of

honoraria, reimbursement for overtime work, or released time — was necessary for strengthening and continuation of community service programs. Interviewees noted:

> Faculty motivation must be maintained in order to continue the program. We need to provide more responsible financial incentives, released time, or a combination of both.

> Faculty members have to be paid on at least a break-even basis. I would like to donate my time, but I can't afford to do charity work.

Despite the strong belief among interviewees that monetary rewards were prerequisite to strengthening and continuation of community service programs, the statistical analysis indicated no association with any of the outcomes. However, the large number of instances in which monetary rewards were provided may have made statistically significant association impossible.

When asked what factors brought about the strengthening and continuation, interviewees also mentioned the chance to provide educational opportunities to their students. Interviewees stated:

> Some strengthening occurred because faculty members recognized the opportunity to provide field experiences for their students and, secondarily, to provide public services to the community.

> The most important factor was that we had some discretionary funds available which we could use to get graduate students to help on particular projects. What we were trying to do was to develop a philosophy of being involved.

As indicated in Appendix H, developing faculty support was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, faculty involvement, and instructional program and with strengthening of linkage. These statistical findings are consistent with the qualitative analysis which indicated that developing faculty support is critical in obtaining the outcomes which are closely related to the institution.

ASSESSING NEEDS: TYPES OF NEEDS ASSESSED

Interviewees were asked to describe the types of needs assessed in developmental efforts funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. A review of responses suggested the use of Bradshaw's description of types of needs (Bradshaw, pp. 184-85) as a basis for analyzing the data concerning this variable. In some projects funded under the Act, interviewees indicated that needs assessment relied exclusively on what experts defined as the needs to be addressed, based on their prior experience or on research. Bradshaw (1974, p. 184) has referred to needs defined in this manner as *normative needs*. These experts included individuals within the institutions of higher education and the community as well as advisory committees composed of both institutional and community representatives who defined the needs to be addressed. For example, interviewees indicated:

> The educational needs were determined in consultation with the institution's key decision makers, that is, the president and the vice-president of academic affairs.
>
> I was the major perceiver of needs within the community, based on my experience working there as a public official (city mayor). I was in a sense the contact person between our institution and the community.
>
> An advisory body of college and community representatives met and looked at state Title I priorities and decid[illegible] to address three areas specified in the guidelines.

In most instances, the types of needs assessed included the inputs from individuals or groups who defined needs based on their knowledge of the needs of various target populations. In some cases, particularly those involving academic units, decisions on needs to be addressed were based on what resources were available and how the activities fit with the unit's academic program.

As indicated in Appendix H, normative types of needs were significantly positively associated with the continuation of the instructional program.

In other projects, persons were asked to identify what they thought they needed. Bradshaw has referred to this type of need as *felt needs* (p. 184). In most cases interviewees indicated that identification of felt needs was accomplished by surveying potential target populations. For example, interviewees stated:

> We had an information base that was continuously growing, based on some surveys that were conducted by our faculty members on various projects, and we used this information as one of the sources of identification of needs.
>
> Needs were identified by conducting personal interviews in the community using a survey instrument.

Typically, the identification of felt needs required the use of information-gathering techniques which provided project personnel contact with the community. Project personnel, e.g., faculty members, had an opportunity for dialogue with the community through their involvement in planning and implementation of surveys with community representatives. In addition, the community came to appreciate both the importance the institution placed on their input regarding needs and the resources that the institution had to offer in solving their problems.

As indicated in Appendix H, felt types of needs were significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, linkage, and image and with continuation of faculty involvement.

In still other projects, requests from community problem solvers for a particular type of education relevant to community problem solving were used as indicators of what was needed. Bradshaw has termed such requests *expressed needs* (p. 185). For example, interviewees stated:

> The needs for the Title I (HEA, 1965) projects with which I have been involved are based on the state's recent concern for land use and zoning.
>
> Two corporations requested assistance in designing middle management courses for Puerto Ricans.

When the types of needs assessed were based on requests from the community, the ability of the institution to respond reinforced the community's awareness of the institution as a valuable resource in solving community problems. For example, several interviewees stated:

> The president became aware that there needed to be a structural attempt to deal with the expressed needs of people. We advertised for people to come to campus and indicate their educational needs. This contact with our community led surrounding communities to request our services.

> Now the community people identify problems and call us, as the college has developed a close relationship with local governments.

> The input from the community as it requested our services was very helpful in directing us toward the most pressing needs. This sort of involvement leads to greater visibility.

As indicated in Appendix H, expressed types of needs were significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of linkage.

In some projects gaps were noted between education provided to assist in community problem solving in one setting and that offered in a similar setting. Needs identified in this manner have been labeled *comparative needs* by Bradshaw (p. 185). Interviewees stated:

> The community problems were identified in a study funded by the Area Planning Development Commission in 1969. Along with other faculty members whom I recruited, I compared the results of the early study with known national data.

> The needs were defined initially by contacting chambers of commerce statewide. We also used magazines to define the types of problems small businesses nationwide were experiencing that were similar to ours.

As indicated in Appendix H, comparative types of needs were significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, strengthening of instructional program, and continuation of faculty involvement.

In many instances, a combination of normative, felt, expressed, and, to a lesser degree, comparative needs were assessed. Experts in the institution and the community generally were consulted. Recent requests of community problem solvers were taken into consideration. Additional efforts were made to understand the needs of community problem solvers. Attention was paid to identifying and considering the potential relevance of needs successfully addressed elsewhere by projects funded under the Act and similar efforts. For example, interviewees stated:

> We interviewed and gathered statistics for each community. We made comparisons to develop a profile on these communities to have a better understanding of what types of problems these cities faced and what educational programs were needed.

> A target area or community is identified, and the problem or need is specified as viewed by the community, community leaders, governmental agencies, faculty members, client groups, and individual clients.

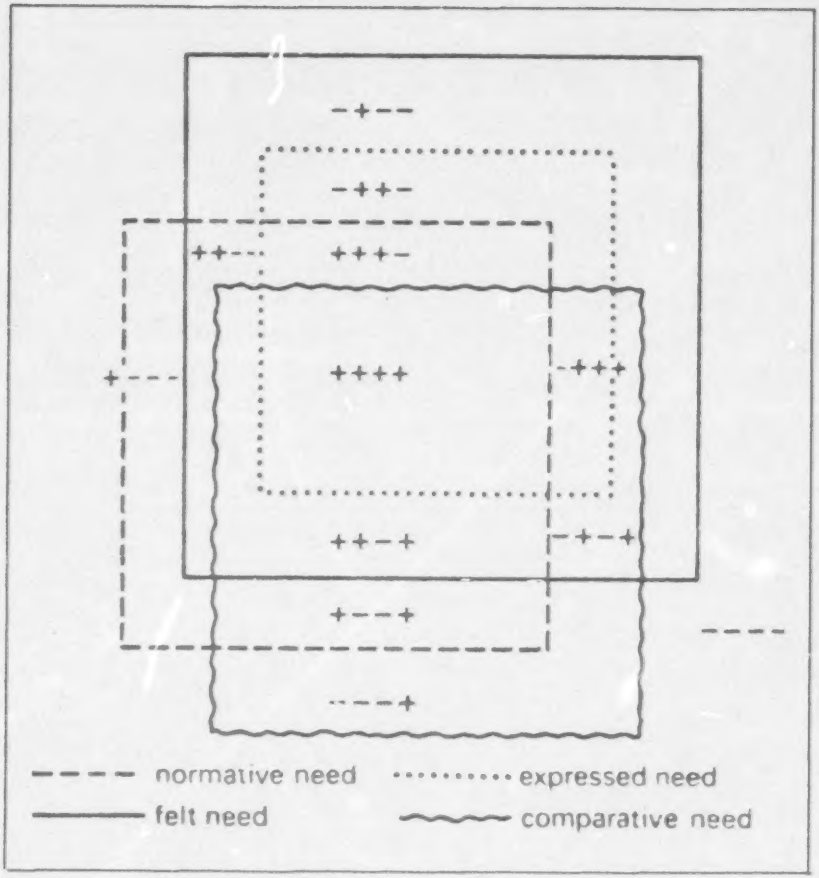


Fig. 4: *A Taxonomy of Social Need* (Bradshaw, 1974, p. 185).

In describing the way in which needs were identified from several perspectives and the consequences of doing so, a project director stated:

> To a great extent, strengthening and continuation achieved by our Title I (HEA, 1965) project are attributable to the nature of the needs addressed. I know this region quite well. Feelings were running high, but no one was doing anything about those feelings. We got more and more requests. Television and the press informed persons here that programming of a type that seemingly would help us was being provided elsewhere. I talked with experts here in the institution and at a national meeting. Then I brought together community leaders in various parts of the region. All of this happened before I submitted a proposal to Title I (HEA, 1965). As a matter of fact, the heart of that proposal grew out of all those efforts to assess the need. By the time the need was assessed, we had many people in the institution and the community already involved.

According to Bradshaw:

> Fig. 4 demonstrates diagramatically the interrelation of the four definitions. Plus (+) and minus (–) denote the presence or absence of need by each of the foregoing definitions, i.e., +—+ is a need that is accepted as such by the experts, but which is neither felt nor demanded by the individual despite the fact that he has the same characteristics as those already being supplied with the service.

As indicated in Appendix H, a combination of normative, felt, expressed, and comparative types of needs assessed was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional and faculty involvement, linkage, and image.

In general, addressing needs that seemed pressing from the perspective of persons in institutions of higher education or in the community, but not both, limited strengthening and continuation. When the needs to be addressed were defined comprehensively, sound foundations typically were provided for projects. Normative and comparative needs tended to affect strengthening and continuation of faculty involvement and instructional program. Felt and expressed needs tended to affect strengthening and continuation of linkage and image. Together they also affected strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement.

ASSESSING NEEDS PROCESSES

Interviewees were asked to describe the processes by which needs were assessed. They indicated that a variety of information-gathering methods had been employed, ranging from informal to relatively formal ones. In describing informal procedures, interviewees typically stated:

> We tried a course to see if it "went." If there was not a good response, the course was dropped. Otherwise, it was continued, and we assumed that in it we were meeting a need.

> We hypothesized the need, based on our experience and expertise in the college.

Other types of informal needs assessment included: (1) talking informally with community leaders, practitioners, and service providers about

educational needs relevant to community problem solving, (2) relying on the ongoing relationships between community service and continuing education units within institutions and communities to identify educational needs to be addressed, and (3) attending public meetings and community forums in which community needs were discussed.

Formal approaches to needs assessment included: (1) using advisory committees and regional planning committees and (2) surveying target populations, community leaders, local government officials, or personnel in community service agencies. One interviewee described a formal approach to needs assessment as follows:

> The community educational needs addressed under Title I (HEA, 1965) were determined by the Community Advisory Council of fifty-five members including both faculty members and community leaders. We divided this council into five task forces which then proceeded to interview and survey various publics in surrounding communities concerning their needs.

Typically, formal needs assessment processes involved development of survey techniques (i.e., questionnaires and interviews) in which representatives of both the faculty and community participated. More importantly, formal needs assessment meant that the community had an opportunity to provide input regarding problems that needed to be addressed by the institution. These contacts with the community often initiated or expanded the network for communication between the institution and community and also indicated to the community the institution's willingness to assist in solving community problems. For example, several interviewees stated:

> With the help of an advisory committee made up of community people and professionals, we determined what problems we were going to address. This process improved the institution's contacts with and visibility in the community.

> It took quite a while, but we finally devised a system by which the community can easily request our services. We have encouraged agencies to come to us to seek answers to their questions. We are now able to break down the ivory tower image of the institution.

In some instances, involving faculty members in the design and implementation of formal needs assessment processes increased faculty contact with the community and enhanced their chances for continuing their involvement, particularly through consultation. For example, one interviewee stated:

> We rely heavily on our field directors and their contacts with regional councils composed of mayors, county officials, and lay persons for needs assessment. Surveying these regional councils has kept our faculty members informed and the institution involved.

In still other cases, the involvement of the community in the assessment process increased the credibility of the institution as a continuing educational resource for the community in solving some of its more urgent problems. One

interviewee described the process of building respect for the institution's capabilities as follows:

> We identified the needs of the community. It was a building process. Our first step was to research the various characteristics of this community. We examined educational levels, economic levels, etc., and based our decisions on that information. Also we have lived here all of our lives and know the community. Our second step was to identify groups to ask what the needs were. As a result of our identification process we built a broad base of support in the community for programs.

As indicated in Appendix H, the formality of the needs assessment process was significantly positively associated with the strengthening and continuation of institutional and faculty involvement, linkage, and image.

Although many interviewees indicated that the use of *informal* techniques for needs assessment was usually sufficient, particularly when information was obtained from community service and continuing education units that had extensive long-term relationships with the community, that opinion was *not* substantiated by quantitative findings in the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study. It would seem that relying on experience for providing community service and continuing education which has not been explicitly designed to be relevant to community problem solving is not enough. Using relatively formal needs assessment procedures that inventory needs widely and systematically has seemingly greater payoffs for the institution and community.

INVOLVING THE COMMUNITY

Interviewees were asked to describe processes by which the community was involved in order to bring about strengthening and continuation of community service programs. Responses indicated that ethnic and economic minorities, community leaders, government leaders and officials, public agencies and organizations, special interest groups (women, aged, persons from rural areas), and business and industry leaders were involved for the purposes of assistance with needs assessment, identifying and providing resources, recruiting clientele, teaching, evaluating, providing skills and expertise, planning, and serving as project directors.

The majority of interviewees indicated that various segments of the community were actively involved in planning and implementing projects through a wide range of processes. Typical interviewee responses included:

> We created an advisory committee with women from the community on it. We asked them to become a working committee and to give feedback reports and suggestions.

> We asked the Public Health Office what the new law means. Personnel there interpreted it, and they proposed the activities we needed to provide.

> A group of influential citizens — nonuniversity — set out to identify community needs. The project director then asked them to establish priorities from those identified needs.

> We have utilized public school personnel to a significant degree in identifying low income people who could benefit from this program and in serving as middlemen for us.
>
> We have also used an effective technique of calling community persons to remind them about the meetings and then having them call others so that they become involved in the effort of trying to keep interest high among community leaders.
>
> We sent out questionnaires to the participants to ask them to approximate how closely we had come to meeting the goals and objectives for that particular year.

In one project a group of concerned citizens in a low income neighborhood of a large metropolitan city was involved in a project to improve the design, structure, and livability of homes. Persons in the neighborhood along with students from the university who were enrolled in an architectural course were involved in planning and staffing various design, procurement, and construction teams. In other cases, interviewees indicated that practitioners in the community with a particular expertise were used as resource persons.

Many interviewees stressed the importance of involving segments of the community in the development and implementation of community service programs. Some merely stated that community involvement was important:

> I would guess one of the key factors has been having community involvement — heavy community involvement.
>
> Our major strategy was to use leaders in the community in order to develop useful linkages there.

Other interviewees were more explicit in their explanation of the reasons for involving the community:

> We insist on cooperative planning with people who will be involved and participating in all programs. This contributes significantly to the repetition and expansion of our activities.
>
> One of the key factors has been the extensive support of various community leaders who are very visible within their own communities and have encouraged other persons to become involved and to support our efforts.
>
> A set of expectations was created, and the community continues to demand community service. This puts pressure on the president to continue the community service programs.
>
> Once you have established community financial support, you are then able to go to the president of the institution and say, "I have received this much money from the community. They are willing to commit this much to our efforts. What is the institution willing to commit?"
>
> We involved as many leaders of community agencies as possible in our consumer education efforts because it increased our program credibility.

As indicated in Appendix H, involving the community was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional and faculty involvement, linkage, and image. These associations substantiate the qualitative data which emphasized the importance of involving the community in a variety of ways.

Qualitative and quantitative analyses indicated that the number of different community groups involved was less important than having the appropriate people involved, relative to the program being developed. Moreover, both the number of ways that the appropriate community groups were involved and the depth of their involvement were important. These findings indicated that, for the greatest effect, a project director should involve a defined segment of the community in a variety of ways in developing and implementing a program.

OBTAINING SUPPLEMENTAL RESOURCES

Interviewees were asked what alternative resources were used and how they were obtained to supplement the developmental funding provided under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 and institutional matching funds. Most frequently, the resources used either to supplement developmental funds or to provide for continuation were obtained from:

1. State legislatures or state governmental agencies,
2. Public and private foundations,
3. Community sources,
4. Institutions of higher education as sponsors;
5. The federal government,
6. Other institutions of higher education through consortial arrangements.

The following sources were cited too infrequently to permit testing for statistical association with the outcomes: state legislatures or state governmental agencies, public or private foundations, and other institutions of higher education through consortial arrangements.

State Legislatures or State Governmental Agencies

In several institutions, supplemental resources were reportedly obtained from state legislatures or state governmental agencies. For example, a state legislature established and funded a regional continuing education center which allowed for the continuation of projects started, extended, or expanded under the Act. In another instance, one of the efforts funded under the Act involved a statewide effort to train state, county, and local governmental officials. The state legislature viewed these activities as complementing the educational function of several state commissions and therefore funded several campus coordinators of community service and continuing education to continue efforts started by projects funded under the Act.

Public and Private Foundations

Several interviewees mentioned that supplemental funds were obtained from public and private foundations. Some of the foundations that have supported

community service and continuing education activities, such as the Kellogg, Mott, and Ford Foundations, have national visibility. Others, such as the Hill Family Foundation, Meeman Foundation, and the Hartford Foundation for Public Giving, are more locally oriented. Some interviewees expressed the belief that few private foundations would be interested in funding community service and continuing education relevant to community problem solving. Other project directors indicated that their efforts to locate supplemental funding included the creation of both public and private foundations within the community through which money from business, industry, and private donations could be used to extend projects funded under the Act. For example, one interviewee stated:

> Another thing you should know is that a group of community-minded people, all citizens of this community, have established a local foundation. I perform a liaison role to this foundation, and I can go to it at any time to make a request for dollars. But so far, the foundation people have come to me when they feel that there is a community need on which they would like to spend money. It is not a wealthy foundation, but it does provide some funding leeway that has been most useful.

The fact that foundations were occasionally cited as actual sources of supplemental funding would suggest that foundations may have been underestimated by some, but not overlooked by others, as potential sources of supplemental and continuing funding. Prior contacts with foundations reportedly proved valuable but not essential in obtaining funding.

Community Sources

Interviewees stated that alternative resources had been obtained from local community sources. Depending on the nature of the project, local governments, churches, businesses, industries, and schools provided professional expertise and materials, as well as supplemental and continuation funding.

Several project directors indicated that they involved representatives from business, industry, and volunteer organizations on various advisory committees and therefore were able to integrate community resources into the ongoing activities. In some cases these advisory committees offered volunteer services of their organization or donations of money and the use of facilities at no cost to the project. For example, one interviewee stated:

> We received $60,000 from the Municipal League and County Services which has allowed us to continue our statewide training network.

In one institution, according to interviewees, contracts were entered into for training of community governmental personnel who typically engage in community problem solving. In another institution, the project director was able to procure a loan from a bank, with no interest charged, to continue a project started under the Act. In several institutions, in-kind donations were obtained from businesses in return for public acknowledgment.

As indicated in Appendix H, obtaining supplemental resources from community sources was significantly positively associated with continuation of image.

The qualitative data indicated that efforts to secure supplemental funding from the community tended to follow efforts to involve community leaders and interested citizens in planning community service activities. The combination of involvement in planning and financial support meant the community had a vested interest in the activities started, extended, or expanded under the Act. This increased the number and types of persons within the institution and community who shared an awareness for and appreciation of the institution's capabilities to assist in community problem solving.

Institutions of Higher Education as Sponsors

In general, there have been limited institutional resources available for supplemental or continuation funding. In many institutions, community service and continuing education activities must be self-supporting. According to several interviewees, tuition and fees were charged in some institutions in order to sustain what was started under the Act. For example, one project director stated:

> Most of our supplemental resources come from the general budget. Therefore, we are forced to generate institutional revenue by charging tuition and fees for our activities.

Interviewees mentioned several other ways by which they were able to utilize existing institutional resources. In one project, an internship program that was compatible with the institution's existing internship guidelines was developed. The institution has continued to fund student interns, which has allowed for continuation of activities started under the Act. In another project, interviewees indicated that a staff of volunteers, consisting of students, faculty members, and administrators was assembled. Members of the staff were allowed free use of institutional facilities, audio-visual equipment, and other educational materials. In still another project, the project director stated:

> I donated my sabbatical leave time so that we were able to continue the activities we had started under Title I (HEA, 1965).

One project director noted that he was able to use the profits from noncredit courses to supplement his community service activities. Interviewees indicated that in a few institutions hard institutional money was used to fund community service and continuing education coordinators within the institution. These coordinators, in turn, were able to continue what was started, extended, or expanded by projects funded under the Act. In several other institutions, presidential discretionary funds, contingency funds, or other reserve funds

were used to supplement or continue what was started, extended, or expanded by projects funded under the Act. One interviewee stated:

> Last year the administration gave us approximately $30,000 in hard money to continue our problem-solving activities. This money became available when another institute on campus folded.

As indicated in Appendix H, obtaining supplemental resources from institutions of higher education was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, instructional program, and linkage and with continuation of faculty involvement.

In most instances, institutional resources were the predominant supplemental funding source utilized by project personnel. Project personnel tended to have knowledge of institutional discretionary and hard money. They also understood the feasibility of developing credit and noncredit programs from which tuition and fees could be used to supplement funding under the Act.

The Federal Government

Although the federal government was an infrequently mentioned source of supplemental funding, several project directors indicated that they had explicitly developed Title I (HEA, 1965) activities to parallel possible federal grant programs. For example, one interviewee stated:

> We developed our program for senior citizens with the knowledge that Title III and Title IVb of the Older Americans Act might provide us funding to continue our activities when Title I (HEA, 1965) funds were terminated.

Sources of federal funding included the National Institute of Health, the National Endowment for the Humanities, the federal revenue-sharing program, the National Science Foundation, and the Department of Agriculture.

As indicated in Appendix H, obtaining supplemental resources from the federal government was significantly positively associated with continuation of faculty involvement.

The use of federal money to supplement funds from Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 had the potential advantage of increasing the chance that monetary incentives would be available to maintain faculty involvement once Title I funds terminated. In several instances, faculty members working on projects funded under the Act were able to use their previous contacts with federal agencies as leverage in securing federal supplemental funds.

Other Institutions of Higher Education

Interviewees indicated that supplemental resources had been obtained from other institutions of higher education through informal and formal consortial

arrangements. The most frequently obtained resource was faculty expertise which usually was generated through informal collegial relations among faculty members from different institutions.

As indicated in Appendix H, the *combination* of supplemental resources from the institution, the federal government, and the community was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, instructional programs, and linkage and with continuation of faculty involvement and image.

One of the major concerns of project directors involved securing other funds to expand existing efforts or continue them once funding from Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 terminated. Although institutional money (e.g., discretionary funds, fees from credit and noncredit programs) was frequently sought, directors of projects in which substantial strengthening and continuation occurred typically tried to obtain specific rather than general institutional commitments. Furthermore, they tended to seek supplemental resources from a variety of sources rather than relying only on institutional provision of supplemental funding.

INTEGRATING PROJECTS INTO ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

Interviewees were asked to describe how developmental efforts funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 fit into the organizational structure of their institutions and how that fit affected strengthening and continuation. Interviewees indicated that projects had been administered: (1) as individual efforts, (2) through academic units whose primary function was other than community service, (3) through community service and continuing education units, including centers organized externally to the institution, (4) by central administration units, and (5) through interinstitutional or consortial arrangements.

Individual Efforts

Individual administration of a project funded under the Act typically constituted a "one person show." In these cases, the project director usually did not have the support of an organizational unit or access to institutional resources. In a few instances, directors of individually administered projects were able to overcome these limitations because of status, administrative style, personality, or community demands for assistance. More typically, however, little or no strengthening and continuation of the types described in the second chapter occurred as a result of these individual efforts.

As indicated in Appendix H, individual administration was significantly *negatively* associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement and linkage and with continuation of faculty involvement and image. Typically, individual administration either had limited access to institutional resources or failed to utilize those that were available. One interviewee described the negative effects of having only one individual responsible for continuing education and community service as follows:

> The mistake that we make is that we assign an individual the responsibility for community service and continuing education in a particular department, and therefore all of the department's public service is a responsibility of that individual. Other faculty members then tend to funnel their requests to that individual. They feel that they do not need to get involved because they already have a person responsible for community service.

Academic Unit

Many institutions have assigned administrative responsibility to an existing organizational unit whose primary function was not community service, continuing education, or community problem solving. Usually this unit was an academic department; the community service activity was either integrated with the academic program or became an appendage of it.

Interviewees expressed the opinion that conducting projects funded under the Act through academic units facilitated strengthening and continuation. Academic units tended to have ongoing institutional support. Therefore, it was beneficial to have project personnel who were respected by fellow academics or who had close working relationships with the institution's academic administrators, e.g., department chairpersons, college deans.

As indicated in Appendix H, location of the project in an academic unit was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of instructional programs. Administering developmental efforts in academic units meant that project personnel had access to faculty member expertise essential for conducting developmental efforts funded under the Act. In addition, project personnel were able to strengthen faculty involvement by providing them additional research and teaching opportunities. Several interviewees stated:

> Title I (HEA, 1965) is under academic affairs so that we can draw faculty members from all five academic departments.

> The ability of the Title I project to survive within this institution is contingent upon its remaining where it presently is within a departmental structure. By design, we have integrated the Title I efforts into a portion of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and have the benefit of using the faculty resources of the various departments within that college.

> We had to fit our community service and continuing education activities into an existing framework because we are a very small institution. Thus, the Office of Continuing Education has been attached to my department primarily because that is the department where relevant expertise is located. This type of organizational arrangement has worked very well here.

In some cases, location of the developmental efforts in the academic unit was seen as advantageous for providing experiential education opportunities for students.

> We build our programs on the basis of being able to get students involved.
>
> By administering Title I (HEA, 1965) through our Department of Higher and Continuing Adult Education, we have been able to expand our graduate interns program.

Continuing Education and Community Service Units

Interviewees indicated that they thought conducting developmental efforts through continuing education units would particularly facilitate strengthening because of these units' familiarity with serving the community. In one institution, the preexisting unit had staff members who were experts in development and delivery of community service programs. Further, because of its preeminent image in the state, it was able to draw from other expertise within the institution or elsewhere in the state, thereby increasing its ability to undertake projects even on a statewide basis. In some cases, locating developmental efforts in continuing education and community service units allowed for expansion of programs which resulted in increased contact with the community.

In several cases, project directors indicated that the project fit best in the continuing education and community service unit because that unit had the experience in securing funds to supplement or continue developmental projects. One interviewee stated:

> My personal opinion is that it is better to have Title I (HEA, 1965) projects in the Center for Continuing Education. My rationale is that once the soft money has terminated, the center has experience in locating additional funds or additional capabilities to continue those efforts.

Interviewees indicated that another advantage of locating the project in the continuing education and community service unit was the ability of the project personnel to conduct interdisciplinary efforts by drawing on resources of several departments in the institution.

The importance of locating the project in the continuing education and community service unit was further enhanced when the director of the continuing education and community service unit reported to or was in an equivalent administrative position with administrators in charge of academic programs, e.g., vice-president for academic affairs or academic dean. For example, interviewees stated:

> Our director of continuing education is responsible for the continuing education efforts, and he has a direct line to the president and to the academic dean. This direct contact with the president facilitates strengthening and continuation. The ability to go directly to the president is the result of his position as director of continuing education. If he were only a department chairperson, he would report only to the academic dean.

> The director of the Office of Continuing Education reports to the vice-president of the university and academic affairs. He is therefore on a par with the deans of the colleges rather than on a par with the chairpersons of divisions. The faculty participated in the development of this plan which is further evidence of the high regard placed on continuing education here.

In a few institutions, the community service function typically was separate from the traditional function of the institutions, and the new units were relatively autonomous organizations. Organized as separate nonacademic units and staffed by subject matter specialists, they did not have to confront faculty indifference or resistance to community service efforts. Respondents indicated that, while the separate status facilitated initiating community service efforts, it hindered integration of community service into the traditional programs of the institutions.

As indicated in Appendix H, administering developmental efforts funded under the Act through continuing education and community service units was significantly positively associated with strengthening of faculty involvement. This supports the finding from the qualitative data that faculty members prefer community service involvement which utilizes their expertise but which does not require major administrative responsibilities.

Central Administration

In some instances, developmental efforts were conducted by the central administration. A few interviewees indicated that, by having Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 administered through the President's Office, Office of the Vice-President of Academic Affairs, or a research and development office, those activities reportedly had greater access to the support of the institution's key decision makers and increased the chances that activities would be strengthened and continued. For example, interviewees stated:

> Title I (HEA, 1965) projects are plugged into the Research and Development Office which is at the administrative level and has direct access to the president.

> The project has fit into the structure well, particularly since I am in the President's Office. The status is high, and this has helped with strengthening and continuation.

More typically, location of developmental efforts funded under the Act in the central administration proved less desirable than location in either academic or continuing education and community service units. As indicated in Appendix H, location of the Title I (HEA, 1965) project in the central administration was significantly *negatively* associated with strengthening of faculty involvement and with continuation of instructional programs. Locating developmental efforts in offices of the central administration hindered strengthening and continuation outcomes. Sometimes, the central administration had little if any experience in developing community problem-solving activities. Title I (HEA, 1965) was often perceived as one of the smaller

grams for the institution, and, as a result, was not a major priority. In addition, the central administration often lacked the ability to enlist faculty support because the activities were perceived as being outside the academic departments and their missions.

Interinstitutional or Consortial Arrangements

Interinstitutional arrangements took various forms. A few were relatively formal consortia through which institutions of higher education in a community, region, or state cooperated to facilitate community service activities. Other arrangements through which individuals in institutions of higher education cooperated on projects of common interest were less formal. A few interviewees stated that they thought consortial arrangements would facilitate both strengthening and continuation because combined efforts hopefully would make a wider impact and more readily attract supplemental resources than projects conducted in a single institution.

Many interviewees reported that they thought that interinstitutional or consortial arrangements hindered strengthening and continuation of institutional capability to assist in community problem solving. In some instances, interviewees characterized interinstitutional arrangements as "ant and gorilla acts" to dramatize difficulties incurred by small and large institutions relating to each other. Mandatory consortial arrangements were frequently resented and led to the least amount of strengthening and continuation.

Interinstitutional arrangements were not tested for statistical association because of the few times that they were cited.

In short, developmental projects were most frequently located in either academic units or continuing education and community service units. This occurred because they tended to provide the most desirable match between the nature and scope of the proposed activity and potential or actual resources and expertise. Often academic departments were selected in order to provide experiential education for students.

Typically, however, the location of developmental efforts was the primary organizational unit in which the project director with the necessary process skills and/or subject matter expertise happened to be located. Qualitative analysis of the data indicates that continuation of what was started, extended, or expanded under the Act was hindered when the developmental effort was administered in a different location from the institutional community service program, except when the developmental effort was related to the resident instructional program and was administered in an academic department.

SELECTING PROJECT TOPICS

Interviewees were asked to describe the criteria for the selection of topics to be addressed in efforts funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Interviewees indicated that topics were selected based on the extent to which they met one or more of the following criteria:

1. Congruence with identified community needs,
2. Compatibility with resources available within the institution,
3. Congruence with timely or pressing state or national needs,
4. Consistency with institutional priorities, or
5. Consistency with priorities set by the State Title I Agency.

Congruence with Community Needs

The criterion most frequently mentioned by interviewees as a basis for selecting project topics was congruence with identified community needs. For example, interviewees stated:

> Program content is based on community needs. Community needs are at the core of our decision.
>
> You have to identify the specific need of the target population; otherwise you have no audience for your program.
>
> A project is based on the needs of the people involved rather than some sort of a make-do project which has little support either from those who need the service or those who are offering the service.
>
> The selection of the project topic depends on what the community feels are top priorities. Once these needs are recognized as legitimate, the institution gives us the go-ahead.
>
> Our major criterion was that the project meet a felt need of the community.
>
> Because we have endeavored to fulfill the expressed needs and desires of the community, community problem solvers have begun to request continuation of our Title I efforts and to return to participate in other programs in the institution.

As indicated in Appendix H, selecting project topics to match identified community needs was significantly positively associated with continuation of image. This quantitative finding tends to substantiate the qualitative findings.

Compatibility with Resources Available within the Institution

In conjunction with the identification of community needs, interviewees stated that the availability of institutional resources (e.g., expertise, facilities) that could be used to assist in community problem solving was a major consideration in topic selection. Interviewees stated:

> The topics were selected primarily because of available expertise and because needs were present. We chose some topics because they related to departments with a record of past involvement and because their expertise was relevant and available.

> There were two criteria that we used: (1) the desire of communities for assistance and (2) the resources that were available to respond to community needs.

As indicated in Appendix H, selecting project topics to match resources available within the institution was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of instruction. This association substantiated the qualitative findings since institutional resources are primarily related to the academic program. In several instances, interviewees found it highly desirable to develop activities that were compatible with the institution's academic program, particularly programs which provided experiential education opportunities for students.

Congruence with Timely or Pressing State or National Needs

Interviewees indicated that topics were sometimes selected explicitly because they were thought to be congruent with timely state or national needs. Several project directors stated:

> I read a variety of publications and attend professional meetings in the state and in Washington, D.C., scanning the topics on which attention is currently being placed. We then structure what happens in our projects to address those timely topics.

> The Watergate era, in which there was need for more scrutiny by the public of the affairs of public officials, made this project a higher priority in the community than normally would have been the case, and we took advantage of this public sentiment by offering programs to train community leaders to become better public servants.

> The main factor is that we were in the right place at the right time. The bureau was initiated here as the campus was emerging as an urban institution. Considering all the urban problems of the late 1960s and the attention focused on them, it was a very good time to attack urban problems and establish linkages with the community.

> I think one of the key factors that brought about strengthening and continuation was that the development of governmental training was a pressing issue statewide. In the ninety-five counties in the state, local governmental officials have received little training to perform their part-time roles as fiscal and judicial agents for the community. The state was interested in upgrading the knowledge and skills of these governmental officials.

Another interviewee stated that problems were addressed for which there seemed to be a readiness for solution both in the community and the institution because one or more of the following forces promoted this readiness: (1) the social concerns of the 1960s (including resident student demonstrations and demands for relevance), (2) increased national interest in life-long learning, (3) declining enrollment at many institutions, and (4) the subsequent effort to attract additional clientele beyond the traditional eighteen- to twenty-two-year-old group. It was this readiness on which project directors sought to capitalize in selecting timely topics. In several instances, project directors selected topics of national or statewide interest which were compatible with the research interests of faculty members and for which funds were available to maintain faculty involvement after activities funded under the Act were terminated. For example, one interviewee stated:

> I think that our needs assessment process allowed us to identify critical problems in the community that one could consider timely state or national needs. We then tried to develop activities for which the state or federal government was beginning to offer grants which parallel the critical community problems. We were then able to either supplement or continue our Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts with the use of these grants.

As indicated in Appendix H, selecting project topics that coincide with timely or pressing needs nationally or statewide was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of faculty involvement and instructional program.

Consistency with Institutional Priorities

Other interviewees indicated that the topics addressed in efforts funded under the Act were selected mainly for compatibility with institutional priorities other than those related to community service. For example, in an institution where there was considerable rhetoric about community service, but where the overwhelming emphasis on merit and promotion reviews for faculty was based on the nature and extent of their research and publication, projects were structured to permit faculty members to make an educational contribution to community problem solving, to relate those efforts to research, and, in turn, to publish the results of both.

As indicated in Appendix H, selecting project topics to fit institutional goals and priorities was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement and with continuation of image, and significantly *negatively* associated with strengthening and continuation of instructional programs.

Several project directors indicated they deliberately developed community service activities compatible with the research and teaching missions of various departments within the institution. In some institutions where the goals and priorities stressed undergraduate and graduate teaching, efforts designed to develop experiential education in various departments of the institution were forced into the mold of the traditional instructional program.

Consistency with Priorities Set by State Title I Agency

Interviewees indicated that a few project topics were selected because of their compatibility with explicit state Title I agency planning guidelines. Interviewees stated:

> We tended to plug our existing Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts into the state criteria, which mentioned senior citizens as an area of particular concern.

> We chose the community college as our project topic because it was a high priority need of the Department of Higher and Continuing Education and the state Title I agency, and we felt the project would therefore have a better chance of being refunded.

In several instances project directors indicated that the state Title I agency explicitly asked them to develop a specific project. One interviewee stated:

> Our institution was asked by the state Title I agency to develop a program for a need they had identified. Our staff had no input into the selection of the project topic.

Selection of project topics to fit with priorities set by state Title I agencies was cited too infrequently to permit testing for statistical association.

In short, many of the criteria used by interviewees to select project topics were associated with institutional involvement, faculty involvement, and instructional programs. However, no single criterion was especially important in producing a wide range of strengthening and continuation outcomes. Each criterion has advantages and disadvantages which must be considered in selecting project topics.

IDENTIFYING INSTITUTIONAL RESOURCES

Interviewees were asked to describe processes by which institutional resources relevant to community problem solving were identified. Respondents indicated that a variety of techniques, ranging from very informal to relatively formal processes, was employed to identify institutional resources.

Informal approaches ranged from almost no intentional resource identification efforts to those which relied heavily on a priori judgments, informal contacts, and previous experiences of project directors. In describing informal processes, interviewees stated:

> I had no conscious strategy for finding resources that would assist in the proposed project. I did know, through some informal contacts, the people in the institution who were interested.
>
> There was no one way in which we sought institutional resources. It was mostly our informal contacts with people within the institution.
>
> We basically knew who the relevant resources were in our institution.
>
> I used my own expertise and my own training to identify some people that would support efforts for this project.
>
> There was no defined process.

Formal ways of identifying resources reportedly entailed the use of surveys or computerized data storage and retrieval systems. As described by interviewees:

> A formal needs assessment survey of students and faculty members was done which was funded through a private foundation.
>
> I tried to match faculty expertise with each particular need identified. I have developed a computerized profile of faculty interests and expertise, and this includes faculty expertise at other institutions in the general area.
>
> We have done a formal survey and published the results in a catalog.

> We used a survey technique which identified the interests of the faculty members and their spouses in working in various communities and subjects that were particularly interesting to them.

Most often institutional resources were identified by project directors, but sometimes they were identified by the president, deans, department chairpersons, or advisory committees. Interviewees noted:

> The president identified the resources.

> Weekly meetings of people involved helped to identify resources that the project director did not know about. It was really an informal network.

> The people on the committee identified the resources. We knew a few faculty members who would be willing to be involved. There was very little reaction by faculty members to the printed materials that we sent out.

> Resource identification was also done through discussions with the advisory committee to the Office of Continuing Education.

Some interviewees had developed strategies for using resources in order to strengthen the community service program of the institution. Interviewees stated:

> We try to get the most from our limited resources. For example, we try to establish relationships among programs dealing with consumer education and the Center for Government Training.

> Whenever we have time to plan, we build into our program plans for future impact by trying to allocate some of our own resources to do this. We really don't want quickie programs. Sure, they do provide overload salaries for faculty members, but that's not how we grow.

> We have made a conscious effort to use those persons who are interested in community service and to expose those whose attitudes are indifferent to the success of these activities.

Only one interviewee reported that no resource identification had been done, and the project referred to was subsequently dropped.

As indicated in Appendix H, the formality of identifying institutional resources was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of linkage and with strengthening of faculty involvement. In other words, the more formal ways of identifying resources tended to facilitate developmental efforts funded under the Act. Formal processes for identifying institutional resources tended to lead to the identification of skills and interests with which project directors were not previously acquainted. Relying on impressions and informal contacts seemed to have been insufficient, especially at larger institutions with limited prior experience with community service and continuing education.

UTILIZING METHODS OF DELIVERY

Interviewees described a variety of methods which they had employed to release the resources of their institutions to assist in community problem

solving. Among those described were: (1) credit and noncredit course offerings, (2) short courses and conferences, (3) media, and (4) consulting, research, and direct services by faculty members.

Credit and Noncredit Courses

Most often, credit and noncredit courses were the delivery technique used by institutions of higher education to release their resources for community problem solving. The courses were administered as continuing education courses primarily for nonresident students or as experiential courses primarily for resident students.

Courses were offered on and off campus and often linked to traditional and external degree programs. Interviewees stated:

> We have used Title I (HEA, 1965) as seed money to start our whole credit and noncredit continuing education and community service program.
>
> Continuing education is the opportunity to get university people off campus and to get community people on campus.
>
> We set up the extension service. We developed a GED program in twelve different communities. Many who have passed the GED have enrolled in college.
>
> We brought in a project director to establish academic courses within the College of Education. This resulted in the establishment of the Department of Adult Education.

In order to involve students in community problem solving, a variety of experiential education programs was developed. Most often these programs took the form of internships and involved students in identifying problems, seeking solutions, trying to stimulate community people into action, and/or providing direct services. Interviewees noted:

> Independent study and internship programs for which students get academic credit for field experiences in the community were set up.
>
> The purpose of the internship program is to place students with appropriate majors in governmental agencies in the city and county and give them up to fifteen hours of college credit to work on urban problems. The program is a combination of field research closely supervised by city and county personnel and seminars with other students and faculty members.
>
> About four years ago we went to an experiential-based curriculum in which we use community service efforts. The Title I (HEA, 1965) project director helps to identify community people who can work as resource people for any experiential education.

As indicated in Appendix H, the use of courses as a means of releasing the resources of the institution to assist in community problem solving was significantly positively associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional involvement, faculty involvement, and instructional program and with continuation of linkage and image. In most institutions, credit courses were accepted by a department only after considerable deliberation. As a result, courses were less susceptible to program changes than were other

delivery methods which did not receive the same kind of careful deliberation. Credit courses reportedly tended to be institutionalized and therefore were more likely to continue than noncredit courses.

Short Courses and Conferences

A variety of methods was used to provide short-term learning experiences for community problem solvers. These methods included short courses, workshops, conferences, seminars, and consortia. Interviewees indicated:

> We deal with in-service training programs for elementary and secondary school teachers. So essentially we train the trainers (teachers) through in-service programs.
>
> The first project lasted four months and involved one or two meetings a month of city and county employees. This was a certificate program in leadership training.
>
> We conducted one-day seminars in which we had two speakers and a reactor panel of professionals during the mornings and afternoons. The seminars took place on Saturdays. Our goal was to hit influential persons in decision-making roles.

As indicated in Appendix H, using short courses and conferences was not significantly associated with any of the outcomes.

Media

A variety of media was used to reach community problem solvers. Media employed included video programming and talk-back TV. Most often these presentations were the product of faculty and graduate student efforts.

> We have been able to pioneer techniques in the field of educational media (video). These new educational techniques have provided new community development techniques by which citizens and communities are able to discuss and take constructive action in regard to particular community problems.
>
> We used talk-back TV, in-field instruction, and combinations of the two.
>
> The strength of the TV network is in the ability to present information over a considerably large area. The disadvantages are largely technical.
>
> I have been somewhat inhibited by the time and delivery structures I have had to work within. Talk-back TV does present some problems in structuring the course.

As indicated in Appendix H, the use of television as a delivery method was significantly *negatively* associated with the strengthening and continuation of image. The qualitative data supported this finding, as many interviewees mentioned the frustration caused by technical difficulties.

Consulting, Research, and Direct Services by Faculty Members

Faculty members frequently acted as consultants in community problem-solving efforts. Sometimes students and faculty members provided direct ser-

vices, often through research. In one instance, an engineering professor and a graduate student helped impoverished communities clean up their water supply and sanitation facilities. The project also involved the development of a new, economical water purification system which will have wide application. Research, consulting, and direct service were generally used as techniques for addressing very narrowly defined problems. Only research, which was statistically associated with strengthening of instructional program, was associated with any outcome.

When interviewees were asked to describe the effect of methods of delivery on strengthening and continuation, credit and noncredit courses were cited as likely to have the most long-term effect. Media were also mentioned. Short courses were not identified except when they led to credit courses; however, the increased ability to deliver short courses, to respond quickly to short-term educational needs, was identified. Interviewees stated:

> We have been able to outline community and community agency goals and to try to integrate them into credit programs to assist community problem solvers in reaching these goals. The credit activities are state funded if they fit into a particular academic unit within our institution.
>
> The internship program has been continued. Most other Title I (HEA, 1965) projects did not continue.
>
> Two main things will probably be continued. These are: (1) the awareness of community problems that can be dealt with through media and (2) the awareness of what video can do as a tool in providing continuing education or community service to areas served by the college. We wrote a manual illustrating uses of video to help students in journalism who are involved in community service.
>
> The videotapes we have made will continue after funding is over. Anyone can use our packaged materials for the cost of duplication.
>
> In-service workshops for teachers led to course offerings for continuing professional educators which have created an income for our extension division.

As indicated in Appendix H, consulting, research, and direct services by faculty members was significantly positively associated with strengthening of instruction.

The quantitative data identified credit and noncredit courses as the method of releasing resources of institutions of higher education to assist in community problem solving which was positively associated most extensively with the outcomes identified in this study. Furthermore, courses, as a method of delivery, were also highly associated with developing faculty support.

SUMMARY

Of the processes described in Chapter IV, performing change agent roles was the process most highly associated with strengthening and continuation outcomes.

In successful projects, the directors typically performed several change agent roles both in the institution and in the community. When needed, project directors served as solution givers, process helpers, catalysts, and resource linkers. Directors who typically played only one or two of these change agent roles (particularly if they did so only in the institution or only in the community, but not both) usually directed projects in which relatively little strengthening and continuation occurred.

According to interviewees, maintaining communication with administrators, using public relations and publicity techniques, and involving administrators in community service programs were sometimes used to develop administrative support. Doing so associated with all of the strengthening and continuation outcomes. By developing or maintaining administrative support, philosophic and budgetary support to supplement and continue what was started, extended, or expanded under the Act was more likely to be forthcoming.

In strengthening and continuing institutional involvement, faculty involvement, and instructional programs, developing faculty support through providing monetary rewards, through educating faculty members to community service opportunities, and through providing opportunities to expand professional capabilities were considered important. However, developing faculty support was *not* critical in strengthening and continuing linkage and image.

In successful projects, educational needs were assessed comprehensively. The opinions of experts were taken into consideration, as were the felt and expressed needs of community problem solvers. Moreover, the ways in which needs were defined and met successfully elsewhere under similar circumstances were taken into consideration. Strengthening and continuation were found to occur far less frequently when the types of needs to be addressed were identified from only one or two of these sources. Defining the needs to be addressed comprehensively seems to provide a sound foundation for projects. It also typically makes it possible for persons both from the institution and from the community to have a voice in focusing the project on needs that are thought to be of high priority by people from each setting.

Relatively formal needs assessment was found to be associated with most of the strengthening and continuing outcomes. Some interviewees expressed the opinion that informal needs assessment procedures were sufficient. Findings from this study indicated that this opinion was not substantiated.

Involving appropriate individuals or groups from the community in needs assessment, planning, and implementation was highly associated with all of the strengthening and continuation outcomes described in Chapter II, except strengthening and continuation of instructional programs. Involving appropriate community people in a variety of meaningful tasks was found to be more important than involving large numbers of community people superficially.

Supplemental resources were sought from a variety of sources, including state legislatures and agencies, foundations, community businesses and industries, institutions of higher education, federal governmental agencies, and other institutions of higher education. Successful developmental efforts tended to seek supplemental resources from a variety of sources; less successful ones, from a few or none. Seeking supplemental resources from a variety of sources was highly associated with all of the continuation outcomes and with some of the strengthening outcomes.

Conducting projects as individual efforts was significantly *negatively* associated with many of the outcomes. In other words, a one-person show is far less effective in bringing about strengthening and continuation than efforts administered through an organizational unit. Administering efforts through an academic department or an extension unit provided the easiest access to potential and actual resources and expertise.

The selection of project topics was based on a variety of criteria, including congruence with community needs, compatibility with available resources, timeliness of the need, and consistency with institutional and state agency priorities. The importance of each of these criteria varied according to the goal of the developmental effort. They were associated with mixed results, sometimes facilitating and sometimes limiting strengthening and continuation.

As with the needs assessment process, relatively formal ways of identifying institutional resources relevant to the educational needs of community problem solvers tended to be associated with successful projects. They sometimes led to the identification of resources with which project directors were not initially familiar.

Strengthening and continuation of developmental efforts funded under the Act were most positively associated with long-term courses as the method of delivery. Other methods of delivery were associated with few outcomes.

Chapter V: Alternative Patterns

Chapters III and IV presented findings concerning relationships between influences and processes, on the one hand, and strengthening and continuation outcomes, on the other. When viewed as a whole, the relationships among influences, processes, and outcomes constitute *alternative patterns*, as shown in Appendix H. The strategies that these patterns reflect indicate how projects can be planned and conducted so as to increase strengthening and continuation. These patterns are described first, then illustrated by case studies.

KEY VARIABLES

From qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data, three influence and six process variables were identified as key variables. Each of these groups of influences and processes was significantly positively associated with most of the strengthening and continuation outcomes identified in this study, as indicated in Appendix I. These key variables were:

Influences:
- Nature and extent of top-level administrative support
- Faculty attitudes at the institutional level
- Status of the project director

Processes:
- Performing change agent roles in the institution
- Performing change agent roles in the community
- Developing administrative support
- Developing faculty support
- Multiple approaches to needs assessment
- Ways of involving the community

The six process variables listed above were found to be more important in facilitating strengthening and continuation in developmental efforts funded under Title I (HEA, 1965) than the three influence variables. It seems that a favorable environment is not prerequisite to developmental efforts that result in strengthening and continuation.

Some of the key influences and processes focus mainly on the institution; others, on the community. Qualitative analysis of the data indicated that the *order* in which attention was paid to the institution and the community in developmental efforts funded under the Act was important, as well as the processes that were used. In some projects, attention was paid first to identifying resources and developing capabilities for community services in the institution before efforts were made to identify needs in the community and involve persons from the community. In other projects, developmental efforts were made first in the community and subsequently in the institution. In still other projects, attention was paid to the institution and to the community simultaneously.

GENERAL PATTERNS

From qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data as a whole, the following general patterns of relationship among influences, processes, and outcomes were identified: (1) centrality of what can be described as a "transactive" project orientation, (2) uniqueness of relationships pertaining to strengthening and continuation of instructional programs (especially experiential education) relevant to community problem solving, (3) capitalization patterns, and (4) compensation patterns.

Centrality of Transactive Orientation

As described in the California report (Deshler, Farmer, and Sheats, 1975, pp. 33-37) and sustained in the findings of the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study, examination of the qualitative and quantitative data relevant to projects as a whole indicated that some projects were higher education-oriented; others were community-oriented; and still others were transactive-oriented.

The *higher education-oriented* approach assumed that the initiation and development started with the institution of higher education. Resources such as bodies of knowledge, facilities, faculty members, and students were identified first. Clients, target populations, or agencies were then sought to participate in courses, programs, or other events designed to assist educationally in community problem solving. Interviewees who used the higher education-oriented approach stated:

> We designed the project to reflect or fulfill our institution's goals and priorities.
>
> First, we inventoried the expertise in the institution that could possibly be made relevant to community problem solving. The project's proposal was designed to release the resources identified.

The *community-oriented* approach assumed that the development started with the community. The educational needs of clients, target populations, or agencies were identified first, and the resources of the institution of higher education relevant to these educational needs were then identified. Interviewees whose projects were oriented to the community stated:

> The project was designed, first and foremost, to meet the needs of communities. Institutional resources were then identified and utilized to meet those needs.
>
> As far as possible, the projects sought to meet the educational needs of all community problem solvers who asked for assistance.

The *transactive-oriented* approach started with one or more individuals in the institution and/or community selecting a range of societal needs and a range of institutional purposes and resources. They then attempted to bring those needs and resources together in order to match them for both short-term

and long-term impact. Interviewees utilizing the transactive-oriented approach described it in these ways:

> In developing the project we deliberately inventoried institutional resources, community needs, and community resources including those of voluntary organizations. We involved potential decision makers and participants from both the institution and the community.

> The identified educational needs of community problem solvers were matched with identified educational resources, not only at the beginning but also as new needs and resources were identified. Persons in four communities and in four institutions helped shape the nature of the project.

> We refused to firm up the project until what was mutually agreeable to the institution and community had been determined.

The characteristics of these orientations to program development are summarized in Table 2, adapted from Deshler, Farmer, and Sheats (1975, p. 37).

Like the ancient Roman god Janus, transactive-oriented projects face two ways at once. They seek to accomplish strengthening and continuation by attending to both the institution and the community simultaneously. On the institutional side, the following influences and processes were most associated with strengthening and continuation: favorable top-level administrative support, favorable faculty attitudes toward community service, high status of the project director, playing several change agent roles in the institution, developing administrative support, and developing faculty support. On the community side, the following processes were highly associated: playing several change agent roles in the community, comprehensively defining the types of needs to be addressed, and involving the community in many aspects of planning and implementation. When these influences are present and these processes are used, they contribute significantly to the effectiveness of transactive-oriented projects.

As indicated in Appendices H, J, and K, projects that were transactive in orientation were significantly positively associated with all of the strengthening and continuation outcomes and were significantly different from those that were higher education–oriented or community-oriented. The statistical means of the influences and processes identified in this study varied according to each orientation.

The transactive approach deliberately sought a two-way match of the needs of community problem solvers and institutional resources, rather than seeking to make one side accommodate the other. Trying to involve faculty members after a community-oriented project was planned often produced faculty resistance. Similarly, seeking to identify educational needs of community problem solvers that matched identified expertise of previously selected faculty members produced awkward fits between needs and expertise.

Some of the effectiveness of the transactive approach occurred because persons in both the institution and the community participated in the conception

Higher Education–Oriented Programs Tend to:	Community-Oriented Programs Tend to:	Transactive-Oriented Programs Tend to:
Develop programs starting with higher education resources and then seek to apply them to client's needs or community problems.	Develop programs starting with significant community problems and then seek to identify educational resources in the institutions of higher education and elsewhere.	Develop programs starting with the role of a broker who selects a range of societal needs and a range of institutional purposes and resources and then attempts to bring these together to facilitate mutual benefits through matching.
Be initiated by faculty members or continuing education staff and controlled by higher education.	Be initiated by part-time community-oriented higher education staff and controlled by the community agencies.	Be initiated by continuing education field specialists and local agency facilitators cooperatively, and controlled by mutual contract.
Be highly compatible with higher education priorities.	To not be compatible with most higher education priorities.	Negotiate the intersections between community and higher education priorities.
Be able to generate funds from fees and from reimbursable state funds on ADA formulas.	Experience difficulty in generating funds from fees or reimbursable state funds on ADA formulas.	Experience difficulty in generating funds unless cooperative funding formulas between agencies and the institutions of higher education can be negotiated.
Have a high potential for being strengthened and adopted by the institution of higher education when grant money terminates.	Have a low potential for being strengthened and adopted by institutions of higher education when grant money terminates.	Have moderate potential for being strengthened and adopted unless long-term mutual funding agreements can be negotiated.

Table 2: *Orientations of Community Service and Continuing Education Programs Contrasted* (adapted from Deshler, Farmer, and Sheats, 1975, p. 37).

and planning of a project. This increased the likelihood that the expectations of both the institution and the community would be recognized and relevant resources utilized.

Many community-oriented projects were so external to the institution that they were reportedly perceived by many faculty members as unrelated to the institution. Many institution-oriented projects were so internal to the institution that they were perceived by community problem solvers as not being relevant to their needs. When both the institution and community problem solvers collaborated in a transactive project, the institution tended to be seen as being involved rather than remote.

In short, project orientation was of paramount importance in efforts to develop the capability of institutions of higher education to release their resources to assist in community problem solving. Transactive orientation seems to have been a central characteristic of most projects that resulted in the most extensive amounts of strengthening and continuation.

Uniqueness of Relationships Pertaining to Strengthening and Continuation of Instructional Programs

A second general pattern was that somewhat different influences and processes were associated with strengthening and continuation of instruction (largely experiential education for full-time students) than with the other types of outcomes (such as strengthening and continuation of institutional and faculty involvement, linkage, and image). This pattern was particularly evident in the findings based on data obtained in Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota. Too few of the projects studied in Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee were involved in experiential education to reveal a similar pattern there.

Projects designed to develop instructional programs relevant to community problem solving were facilitated by developing administrative and faculty support. Perhaps because their *main* purpose was to serve full-time students in the resident instruction program rather than problem solvers from the community, projects that sought to strengthen instructional programs needed to give additional attention to establishing and maintaining a transactive orientation. Particular care needed to be paid to relating experiential education to the community and its needs. In these projects it was found to be dysfunctional to: (1) try to make these projects serve, or "fit," institutional functions other than those related to community service, (2) conduct such projects in continuing education or community service organizational units or through consortia, and (3) operate such projects in institutions in which top-level ad-

ministrators were explicitly promoting experiential education in the face of resistance, reluctance, or indifference on the part of the faculty.

Capitalization Patterns

The influences within which projects were conducted and the processes used to strengthen the effort varied considerably. Most frequently, efforts were made to capitalize on: (1) favorable characteristics of project directors, (2) extensive top-level administrative support, (3) existing organizational structures, (4) needs assessment, and (5) selecting timely project topics.

Characteristics of Project Directors

Some projects were largely designed around their directors. Through their personal influence, contacts with influential persons inside and outside the institution were established and maintained. Often these influential persons were in positions to facilitate strengthening and continuation. In one project, for example, the project director was able to capitalize on contacts with state legislators, involving large numbers of them in activities undertaken as part of the project. This involvement led to the acquisition of supplemental funds. The project and its success depended almost entirely on the ability of the project director to relate effectively to state legislators. In another project, the director was selected by the president of the institution at least in part because of his statewide reputation as an adult educator. His reputation made it possible for him to draw on the expertise of adult educators throughout the state and facilitated the inclusion of projects that he directed through several consortia. In still another institution, the project director brought a national reputation in adult education for older adults to the projects he directed. Through contacts already established, supplemental funding could be sought. Practices regarding teaching older adults that had been effective elsewhere were identified. In addition, the director brought charismatic leadership to the project since he already had a popular following among persons working in the field of service to older adults.

Extensive Top-Level Administrative Support

Sometimes projects stemmed from and were extensively influenced by top-level administrative support. In one institution, a newly appointed president who had had personal experience with community service decided that a project funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 would help the institution become acquainted with community service. He initiated the project and followed its progress with keen interest. In a sense, the project was part of

his long-range strategy to develop the institution into one that combined teaching with public service. Evaluative feedback was regularly provided to him by the project director. He disseminated that information widely both within the institution and to the local press.

In another institution, an academic vice-president sought funding under the Act and worked closely with several chairpersons of academic departments in designing projects. In doing so, he sought to make the teaching and research in their departments more relevant to community problems. Because of his position, he was able to release instructors from other responsibilities to work on various aspects of the projects.

Existing Organizational Structures

A number of projects were designed mainly to capitalize on existing structures which had the capability of facilitating the development of education relevant to community problem solving. In some instances the structures were general extension or cooperative extension statewide networks. In other instances they were offices or centers with a history of releasing the resources of institutions to specialized segments of the community. Through projects funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965, these relationships were expanded and focused explicitly on the needs of community problem solvers. In still other instances, the structures were academic departments. At best, relating to existing structures helped decision makers in those structures reconceptualize their mission to include seeking to meet the needs, educationally, of community problem solvers. When this happened, they were able to use *existing* resources to continue what was started, extended, or expanded as a result of projects funded under the Act. At worst, what was started, extended, or expanded by a project funded under the Act was co-opted to serve other priorities of the structures.

Needs Assessment

If the main emphasis of a project was needs assessment, it was generally assumed that efforts would be made in subsequent projects to meet the needs assessed. In one project, a professor with expertise in assessing needs relevant to assisting community problem solvers taught community service specialists in a relatively large number of institutions of higher education in the state about ways to assess needs. When they had received detailed information about how to assess needs, he and they together assessed needs in several locations, giving them an opportunity to experience what they had heard about and discussed. Many subsequent projects funded under the Act in the state used the needs assessment approach.

In another institution, needs assessment was emphasized in the first of what turned out to be three consecutive years of funding under the Act. Success in

the first year's effort laid a firm foundation. Some interviewees noted, however, that there is an inherent risk in assessing needs during one year and waiting to address them the following year. The needs may have changed considerably between the time they were assessed and the time efforts were made to meet them.

Selecting Timely Project Topics

Several projects emphasized identifying and responding to issues related to community problem solving that were receiving considerable national, statewide, or local attention. Procedures were developed and implemented for scanning newspapers and magazines as well as monitoring the reports of Congress and the state legislature to identify community problems currently receiving the greatest amount of attention. On short notice, speakers who were experts on the identified timely topics were brought to the institution to speak to community problem solvers on the assumption that they would stimulate the community problem solvers to address their efforts locally to problems of national or statewide concern. It was also assumed that timely response to such problems would facilitate obtaining supplemental resources allocated by national or state agencies.

One project was designed and implemented to focus the resources of the institution on a problem that resulted from a local disaster. While public and institutional concern was at its peak, recruiting the voluntary efforts of faculty members and personnel in community service agencies was accomplished. Eventually, local concern about the disaster waned. The persons from the community and the institution, however, continued to work together to address underlying community problems that were thought to have contributed to the disaster.

Compensation Patterns

Analysis of the relationships among influences, processes, and outcomes yielded another type of pattern based on compensation. Some projects could be characterized mainly in terms of the ways in which compensation was made for identified limitations concerning one or more influences or process. For example, in several institutions it seemed advisable for projects to be directed by persons who had relatively low official status in the institutions but extensive and successful experience in working with communities. To compensate for the low official status, lack of contacts in the institution, and unfamiliarity with working in academic organizations, these project directors were paired with persons with high status and extensive contacts in the institutions as well as knowledge about how decisions are made in such institutions. Sometimes this institutional mentor role was played by a president,

a vice-president, or an influential dean. Together, the team could design and implement transactive-oriented projects. Interviewees stated:

> The project directors have low status in the institution, but they bring expertise from fields addressed. This is compensated for by the relatively high status of the dean and the support from the president and vice-president.

> The director of the Office of Continuing Education has a high status in the university, and he can give input at high administrative levels. On the other hand, the project director does not have much formal status, but his personality, his untiring efforts to do Title I (HEA, 1965) projects, and his good results are all highly respected. These factors all seem to be important to the success of the project.

> You are better off with a subject matter specialist as a project director and a generalist as institutional coordinator.

Another form of compensation occurred when project directors had considerable status, experience, and contacts in the institutions, but little experience with involving the community. To compensate for their lack of familiarity with working in the community, persons with successful backgrounds and contacts in recruiting and serving the educational needs of community problem solvers were teamed with the project directors. By working together, the members of the team brought credibility, contacts, and expertise to projects funded under the Act, which helped to increase the capability of institutions of higher education to release their resources to assist in community problem solving. Interviewees stated:

> I feel that the project coordinator cannot be responsible to perform all the roles necessary to conduct Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts. However, when he is not capable of doing a particular role, it is often helpful to find others with expertise who can.

> I see my role as finding resources for these individuals and helping them with the processes related to developing their own problem-solving activities. If I cannot play one of these roles effectively, I feel that another person who can should become involved.

In short, analysis of the relationships among influences, processes, and outcomes indicated the following patterns: (1) transactive orientation tended to make a major contribution to the design and implementation of functional projects, (2) somewhat different influences and processes needed to be taken into consideration in designing and implementing projects relevant to the instructional program, and (3) it was often useful to capitalize on a favorable influence or process or to compensate for weaknesses in an influence or process. The following case examples illustrate how these alternative patterns were handled in projects funded under the Act.

CASE EXAMPLES

The main use anticipated for the foregoing findings about relationships between influences and processes on the one hand, and strengthening and continuation on the other, is heuristic. Those who plan, fund, and conduct

projects must deal with a specific project within a specific context of community and institution. The people, facilitators, and barriers associated with a project all have an impact on the success of the project. The foregoing findings suggest the range of alternative influences, processes, and outcomes that were important in a variety of effective projects funded under the Act. The findings on variables suggest something of the dynamics of projects in action that have implications for decision making. These findings have heuristic value because they suggest alternative patterns for conducting effective projects.

However, the utility of a better understanding of alternative patterns lies in being able to choose more wisely a specific course of action when preparing a project proposal, reviewing proposals to make funding decisions, or administering a funded project. The following case examples are presented to illustrate some of the ways in which influences, processes, and outcomes interact in a specific instance.

Case Example 1: Development of a Community Advisory Council

This case study focused on the efforts of a newly established community college to utilize Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 to assist educationally in solving the community problems of the elderly and minority groups in three adjoining suburban communities. The institution's initial developmental effort involved formation of a fifty-five-member Community Advisory Council. This council, composed of institutional and community representatives, conducted a series of needs assessments that led to development and implementation of several educational programs funded in succeeding years by Title I (HEA, 1965). Funding under the Act coincided with the formulation and implementation of the institution's initial teaching and community service efforts.

Influences

Status of the Project Director. The president served as project director for the first effort funded under Title I (HEA, 1965). Prior to the implementation of the project, the president transferred responsibility to the academic vice-president. These individuals were the highest-ranking administrators within the institution, and they provided tremendous credibility for the project. In addition, the academic vice-president had previously established good rapport with persons and agencies in the surrounding communities.

Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support. Administrative attitudes toward community service were very positive. The president, who made community service a high priority of the institution, had prior experience as director of Title I (HEA, 1965) activities at another institution. In addition, the

academic vice-president had responsibility for the community service function during the institution's first year of operation and therefore was able to integrate community service efforts with regular academic programs.

At the organizational unit level, the chairpersons of the five academic units were strong advocates of community service. The project director attempted to develop their support by having them serve as heads of the five community task forces for the Community Advisory Council.

Faculty Attitude at the Institutional and Unit Level. Faculty attitudes were favorable toward community service in general and Title I (HEA, 1965) in particular. Two factors directly contributed to this positive attitude. First, faculty members were active participants on the Community Advisory Council which assessed community needs and made initial efforts to develop programs that were compatible with the identified needs. Second, the administration in its hiring policy used personal interest and experience in community service as criteria for faculty employment.

Location of Project Administration. The developmental project was initially located in the president's office. Prior to implementation, it was shifted to the Office of the Vice-President for Academic Affairs who also was responsible for continuing education and community service activities. Administration of the project from within the academic vice-president's office eventually led to support for Title I (HEA, 1965) via the five academic unit chairpersons and their respective faculty members.

Processes

Performing Change Agent Roles. Within the institution, the president was the catalyst for the project. The academic vice-president and dean of continuing education performed several change agent roles complementary to that of the president. As process helper he conducted the in-service training sessions for the Community Advisory Council to familiarize council members with ways to determine community needs and identify educational resources compatible with those needs. In addition, he worked closely with the Community Advisory Council to provide a link between resources available in both the institution and community that would assist in community problem solving.

Developing Administrative Support. The task of increasing administrative support for Title I (HEA, 1965) activities was a lesser concern for project personnel because the president and academic vice-president were responsible for writing the initial proposal. However, the involvement of academic unit chairpersons on the Community Advisory Council led to considerable support for the developmental efforts funded under the Act.

Developing Faculty Support. As previously mentioned, the primary missions of the institution were teaching and community service. Community service was

an integral part of the teaching responsibilities of faculty members. One of the criteria for hiring faculty members was interest and experience in community service.

Assessing Needs. Assessing educational needs represented a series of formal processes. Individuals knowledgeable about continuing education, community service, and community problem solving as they related to other state Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts were invited to serve as consultants to the in-service training sessions of the Community Advisory Council. Subsequently, the fifty-five-member council was divided into five task groups headed by the institution's five academic chairpersons who then proceeded to conduct formal needs assessments of various target populations in the community. These community assessments provided information on felt and expressed needs of citizens which led to development of educational programs compatible with those needs.

Selecting Project Topics. The selection of project topics was congruent with needs identified by the Community Advisory Council and typically paralleled timely concerns on a community, state, or national level.

Obtaining Supplemental Resources. The close ties between the institution and community that were the result of the Community Advisory Council provided project personnel access to numerous community resources. In addition, many of the Title I (HEA, 1965) activities were deliberately developed to parallel grants available from state or federal governmental agencies.

Involving the Community. Members of local governmental agencies, civic organizations, community leaders, and special interest groups served on the Community Advisory Council. These members assisted in assessing needs and providing financial resources and clientele, as well as evaluating programs to provide input for future activities.

Outcomes

Strengthening. The formation of the Community Advisory Council, consisting of both institutional and community representatives, built not only communication links between the institution and community but also community awareness and respect for the types of educational assistance the institution could provide. In addition, administrators' involvement on the Community Advisory Council, particularly that of the chairpersons in the academic units, strengthened faculty members' involvement in community problem-solving activities developed by the council.

Continuation. With the continuation of the Community Advisory Council as the unit responsible for assessing educational needs of the community, the communication between the key community decision makers and the institution remained intact, as did the image of the institution as responsive to com-

munity needs. In addition, the Community Advisory Council's initial needs assessment activities led to the development and implementation of several programs for the elderly, minority groups, and retired military personnel in which faculty members and the institution continued their involvement.

The success of the initial efforts encouraged additional requests from various sections of the community for educational assistance. Increasingly, faculty members and students, through experiential education, maintained the institution's link to the community.

Author's Comments

In this case example, developmental efforts *capitalized* on the president's prior experience with Title I (HEA, 1965). Further, it combined faculty members who were department chairpersons with community leaders on the Community Advisory Council to help provide a transactive orientation to efforts for developing a community service program in the institution.

Case Example 2: Project for Women

This project was designed to stimulate the development of various educational and career-related programs for women in a region of the state in which the institution was located. Specifically, the project emphasized the educational needs of persons in institutions of higher education and in their surrounding communities who understood women's aspirations, opportunities, and barriers and who could provide leadership for efforts designed to improve the quality of life of women in the region. Conferences and seminars were held in the four cooperating institutions in the surrounding communities.

The main functions of the institution where the project was conducted are residential instruction and public service, with the latter only recently becoming more than a marginal function.

Influences

Faculty Attitudes. At the organizational unit level, the attitudes of faculty members were very positive toward engaging in a community service project to assist women in the region, including female faculty members. At the institutional level, faculty attitudes generally ranged from indifference to positive expressions of support. Positive faculty attitudes were capitalized upon since considerable volunteer faculty time was expected and was received, not only from faculty members in the institution which received external funding for this project but also from the three other institutions of higher education in the region that cooperated in the project.

Status of the Project Director. The project director had relatively high personal and official status within the institution. She was an academic dean with a national reputation.

Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support. Top-level administrative support at the institutional level has increased in recent years to coincide with the urban outreach mission of the institution. Although resident instruction for degree students remains the institution's foremost function, each academic unit has a part-time faculty member responsible for development of continuing education activities. This has enhanced faculty support for community service activities such as those funded under the Act.

Prior Experience. The sponsoring university had for many years conducted evening courses for adults and special programs for government officials and personnel in nearby businesses and industry. There had also been a few community service activities of other types. Recently the institution received ongoing funding from the state for community service that is different from, but potentially compatible with, community problem solving.

Location of Project Administration. The responsibility for planning and administering the project was assumed by the dean, who developed the initial proposal with general support from her academic department. A voluntary consortium between her institution and three others was formed to prepare the detailed project proposal and to impelement the program.

Processes

Performing Change Agent Roles. The project director was a catalyst, process helper, resource linker, and solution giver at various times during the project, both within the institution and within the community. Various occasions called for different roles. Because the topic was viewed as somewhat controversial and because sufficient change seemed to be taking place for internal and external reasons, the project director occasionally underplayed the catalytic role.

Assessing Needs. With the assistance of faculty members and persons from voluntary organizations in nearby communities, felt and expressed needs of women that could be addressed educationally by the project were assessed. Several experts in women's work and other faculty members were also consulted by the project director. Literature concerning successful women's programs that emphasized education was reviewed to identify needs successfully addressed in programs that were implemented under comparable conditions. Sample surveys were conducted in surrounding communities, and meetings were held to discuss and supplement the findings. Faculty members and leaders from voluntary organizations were invited to participate in these meetings.

Developing Administrative Support. Top-level administrators were routinely provided with news articles describing programs which resulted from the efforts funded under the Act. Documentation of numbers of participants was also obtained, and copies of reports were forwarded to top-level administrators in each of the cooperating institutions.

Developing Faculty Support. Interestingly enough, no monetary incentives were offered to faculty members. Before the proposal was developed and submitted, it was agreed that all faculty members who worked on the project would do so without financial compensation. Being able to help improve the status of women in general and female faculty members in regional institutions of higher education in particular was viewed as the main motivating factor.

Obtaining Supplemental Resources. The project proposal deliberately requested only $5,000. That amount was granted. In explaining why no more than $5,000 was requested, the project director stated that it was part of the strategy of the project from the start that no dependency on external funding would be built into the project. Therefore, participating faculty members received no financial compensation. Moreover, alternative resources in cash and kind were sought and obtained from women's organizations in communities near the cooperating institutions.

Involving the Community. Leaders of community organizations were included in the process of needs assessment and development of the project even before the proposal was submitted for possible funding under the Act. They also provided facilities and financial resources for the project.

Selection of Project Topics. The topic was selected because it fit well with the increasing priority which the institution placed on community service. The project director believed that the time was right for dealing with problems related to career aspirations of women. That opinion was shared by many other persons in the cooperating institutions and the surrounding communities. It was their opinion that they were addressing a "surfacing" need.

Outcomes

Strengthening. Early efforts to determine needs for women's programs involved input from dozens of faculty members in the four participating institutions. They were from a variety of academic disciplines and applied fields. Several faculty members reported that they found themselves illustrating lectures in their resident institution with information and references to experiences they had had in the project. Through these presentations, several sororities in one of the institutions became involved in the project. By including faculty members in this community service effort, the institutions themselves became involved. Linkages between the institutions and women's

organizations were established. As a result of the project, the institutions became recognized in the region as ones that could provide leadership in women's programs.

Continuation. Faculty members who were initially involved in the project continued to play leadership roles by addressing women's educational and career needs in the region and in the institutions. Linkages with the women's organizations remained. As public concern for the educational and career needs of women in the region became more widespread, partly for reasons that extended beyond the effort funded under the Act, the image of the institutions for having made an early and valuable contribution in this area of need was further enhanced. The impact of the project on the instructional program, as reflected in references to it by faculty members, gradually faded. Indirectly, the instructional programs of the participating institutions may have been somewhat affected because of a rapid increase in the number of women who enrolled in those institutions. The project continued to have a positive effect on women in the region and female faculty members in the participating institutions because it helped to establish working relationships and communication linkages that did not exist before the effort.

Author's Comments

This case example illustrates how a developmental effort funded under the Act *capitalized* on a specific faculty and community need and interest. This example also indicates how one project director planned and provided opportunities for *transactive* events from the beginning of the developmental efforts between faculty members and community persons.

Case Example 3: State Consumer Education Project

This project was designed to provide consumer education to local citizens. The effort was part of a larger statewide effort initiated by the state agency for Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. According to respondents, community problem-solving priorities were established at the state level, and proposals for projects were funded based on the extent to which their goals and objectives matched those of the state.

Influences

Prior Experience. The institution sponsoring this project is a small, rural private college. Until the institution began receiving funds under the Act, community service had not been considered the proper role of a private liberal arts institution. The primary function of the college had always been teaching.

Status of the Project Director. The project director had high official status in the institution. He had faculty rank and tenure, was chairperson of an

academic department, and was the director of continuing education. In addition to his high official status, the project director had high personal status in that he was well known and respected for his subject matter expertise and his personality.

Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support. The president of the institution encouraged involvement in community problem-solving efforts. He believed that even though an institution is private, it still has an obligation to the local community. The president initiated the first project funded under the Act because he felt that such efforts should not be dominated by public institutions. The president also desired more field experiences for faculty members.

Faculty Attitudes. In general, faculty attitudes across the institution were favorable toward community service and continuing education activities. Faculty members within the project director's department were highly positive toward such efforts, partly because of their areas of expertise, partly because of presidential influence, and partly because of their positive association with the project director.

Manner of Funding. The institution received approximately $25,000 over a period of three years to develop this program. The institution terminated its participation in the statewide consumer education program when the matching requirement was increased.

Processes

Performing Change Agent Roles. The project director functioned predominantly in catalytic, process helper, and resource linker change agent roles. He, along with the president, initiated the institutional consumer education efforts. He was also involved in training professionals who then trained others about consumerism. He established a directory of resources, including a list of services and telephone numbers related to consumer problems. The project director played a solution giver change agent role to a lesser extent because he believed that people must feel that they are solving their own problems.

Developing Administrative Support. Even though top-level administrative support was already evident, the project director made a concerted effort to maintain communication with top administrators, including the president, and to keep them informed of the progress and activities of the project. The project director also provided top-level administrators with information from project evaluation, which helped to build support from administrators.

Developing Faculty Support. The official and personal status of the project director contributed to strengthening faculty involvement. Faculty members were offered limited monetary incentives to become involved in community problem-solving activities. Faculty support for such activities was encouraged

by including community service involvement as part of the faculty promotion and tenure criteria. Community service opportunities were publicized to faculty members and were often viewed as ways for faculty members to increase their professional competence.

Assessing Needs. The faculty and administration assessed most of the needs with the help of social service agency people who were aware of persons in need. A formal steering committee was used to learn the community's perspective about educational needs. The limits of the institutional effort were prescribed by the statewide program.

Selecting Project Topics. Project topics were chosen because they were congruent with funding priorities established at the state level, as well as with the institution's goals to increase its community service commitment. In addition, topics were selected because of available expertise and because of needs indicated by the community. Topics were also chosen because of the high degree of poverty in the local community and the institution's desire to develop its human services function.

Involving the Community. Community leaders, government officials, and agency representatives assisted the institution's personnel in the planning and implementation of the project. Key individuals such as the mayor, lawyers, and officers of organizations were often contacted. Agency personnel were instrumental in finding clientele for the project. Key leaders and agency representatives gave priority to the needs addressed by the project.

Outcomes

Strengthening. Faculty involvement in community problem-solving activities had greatly increased from practically none to about one-quarter of the institution's faculty members. Those faculty members vastly expanded their areas of involvement and knowledge of community problems. Good relationships were established with the community as a result of efforts funded under the Act. Title I (HEA, 1965) opened doors for future adult and continuing education programs. It strengthened the institution's commitment and involvement and helped redirect the institution's orientation toward community service. The institution's positive image in the community increased as a result of the good rapport developed with community agency representatives. Instructional programs were also strengthened because of two new courses that were added as a result of the project. These were courses in consumer behavior and family development.

Continuation. The faculty involvement in community programs has continued and grown and has been a positive experience for faculty members. Programs in consumerism have been continued even though they are not funded under the Act. The community service and continuing education functions of the

college have been expanded. The two new courses have continued. Populations served benefited from their experience with the project and told others. This, in turn, opened new possibilities for continuing education and community service programs.

Author's Comments

This case example was selected because it illustrates how *capitalizing* on top-level administrative support, positive faculty attitudes, and a project director's relatively high official status facilitated starting a community service program in an institution of higher education. If the influential force field is favorable enough, modestly funded developmental efforts can catalyze the development of community service in an institution. In effect, "snowballing" can result.

Case Example 4: Project Related to Instruction

This project focused on needs of the nine-county region in the state where the institution was located. The project was designed to supplement an existing interdisciplinary academic degree program and to provide fieldwork and experiential learning opportunities for students. The community service programs developed as a result of efforts funded under the Act and addressed four problem areas: (1) physical renewal, (2) social development, including integration of human services, (3) governmental development and intergovernmental cooperation, and (4) economics development.

Influences

Prior Experience. The sponsoring institution is a state university which had been a teachers' college until recently. Past efforts in community service and continuing education were uncoordinated and limited to in-service conferences and seminars for public school teachers. The university had established an office to coordinate continuing education activities, but the office did not have any relationship to community problem-solving activities. Except for the recently established interdisciplinary unit involved in community problem-solving efforts, there have been no institutional efforts to address such issues. The primary function of the institution continues to be traditional classroom instruction, primarily for residential undergraduate students.

Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support. The dean of the college in which the academic unit is housed provided strong support for the project. In spite of decremental budgeting in the college, he provided additional hard money positions for the unit.

Faculty Attitudes. The attitudes of the few faculty members in the interdisciplinary unit were extremely positive toward community service, as it was seen as an important part of the teaching program. At the institutional

level, faculty attitudes were indifferent at best. A small number of faculty members were willing to become involved to a limited degree in activities closely related to their personal and professional interests.

Status of the Project Director. The project director has relatively high official status in the institution as the director of an interdisciplinary unit and as a tenured professor. The project director has both high official and personal status in the community. His role as a former public official had brought him high respect in the community. His personal contacts gained through his experiences in local government helped him to place student interns in experiential learning situations. The assistant project director's personal status was quite high. He was known for his enthusiastic nature and his ability both to involve others in the project and to "beat the bushes" for supplemental resources.

Processes

Performing Change Agent Roles. The director was a catalyst, process helper, resource linker, and solution giver at various times. Since the program was well established, he was primarily a process helper and resource linker, although he was also a solution giver to the extent that he assisted student participants in understanding community needs. He performed these roles within both the institution and the community.

Developing Administrative Support. The director of the academic unit provided extensive information to the dean of the college about the nature of his unit's community service activities. He did this verbally and through written reports, including results of evaluations he had performed. Furthermore, he encouraged community leaders and groups to express their need and desire for assistance. Requests for assistance were duly reported to the dean.

Developing Faculty Support. Because of the budget situation, no monetary incentives were offered to faculty members, except for the purchase of supplies that would not have been available otherwise. Community service was one of the criteria on which a faculty member *could* be judged in promotion and tenure decisions. Faculty members related to the interdisciplinary unit were not given released time or load reduction to participate in community service; they participated because they wanted to and because of its effect on the instructional program.

Assessing Needs. Most of the needs were assessed both informally through inquiries by the project director and formally through the use of a community advisory committee. The latter did not perform surveys of needs but gave priority to problem areas as they were expressed. Initially the academic unit defined the needs it believed it had the resources to address. After its track record was established and recognition by the community was achieved, the

community, especially governmental units, increasingly brought its needs to the attention of the project director.

Identifying Institutional Resources. The project director and his assistant formally surveyed the institution's academic personnel in order to compile a resource bank. This resource bank was computerized and contained profiles of not only faculty members' expertise in areas related to community problem solving but also of their interests and willingness to become involved in such activities. The computerized information was easily accessible to anyone initiating a community problem-solving effort.

Selecting Project Topics. The problem areas addressed were selected to fit the goals of the academic unit. Community problem-solving activities based in an interdisciplinary unit fit with college goals but not necessarily with university goals. The problem areas identified were ongoing rather than temporary. While some of the specific problems addressed were receiving current attention, the problems were selected because of their long-range implications.

Involving the Community. The project director maintained closer contact with governmental officials and agencies. The community advisory committee was comprised of twenty-five people, mostly elected or appointed officials in city government. This advisory committee was instrumental in identifying general areas of community need which could be addressed by the project. Community organizations and agencies were very helpful in providing equipment, supplies, and other supplementary resources for the project.

Outcomes

Strengthening. Because of the availability of additional funds, the academic unit was able to initiate a program of community service linked to its primary focus. While a limited number of faculty members were involved, their participation was strong and lasting. As a result, the unit was able to develop and establish working relationships with city governments. The university in general and the academic unit in particular received favorable reactions to their willingness and ability to assist in community problem solving.

The outcome most strengthened, however, was the instructional program. Advanced undergraduates and graduate students were provided opportunities for internships and other fieldwork. The practical nature of these activities was complementary to the theoretical aspects of the interdisciplinary program.

Continuation. Because of their interest and success in community service activities, faculty members in the academic unit continued to be involved with community problem-solving activities related to the interdisciplinary program. The contacts and linkages which had been established were continued, and the ability of the academic unit to provide internships and other forms of experiential education was maintained.

The academic unit used the funds from Title I (HEA, 1965) to pay the administrative costs of establishing and maintaining the necessary contacts in the

community. The local governmental unit that was assisted was expected to pay for much of the program costs. Although the size of the community service program depended on obtaining additional soft money, the program itself could continue because the linkages had been established and because community service fieldwork had become an integral part of the instructional program.

Author's Comments

This case example was selected because it illustrates the uniqueness of relationships pertaining to strengthening and continuation of experiential education programs relevant to community problem solving. It will be noted that the developmental effort was housed in an academic unit but was interdisciplinary in nature. The project, moreover, was *transactive* in orientation. The academic unit identified institutional resources and tried to match them with community needs assessed by the community and the academic unit. While field experiences were provided for students, institutional resources were utilized to address community needs.

Additional Case Examples

Additional case examples are presented in Appendix L.

SUMMARY

In this chapter relationships among influences, processes, and outcomes were presented. These relationships constitute alternative patterns for developing community service programs in institutions of higher education.

The four case examples presented in this chapter and the four additional case examples in Appendix L illustrate the alternative patterns which have been identified. Most of the case examples were transactive-oriented. Many capitalized on the strengths of the project directors, strong top-level administrative support, or the timeliness of the project topic. A few illustrated the pattern of compensation, especially between the complementary roles of the institutional coordinator and the project director. One case example, administered through an existing interdisciplinary academic unit, emphasized the different patterns of experiential education projects and the patterns of capitalization.

Throughout the chapter, key influence and process variables were identified, and their significance was demonstrated in the case examples. While it seems that the key process variables are relatively more important than the three key influence variables in facilitating strengthening and continuation, the potential impact of the influences should not be underestimated, as the case examples demonstrated.

Chapter VI: Conclusions and Implications

The findings from this study can be used by people who are associated in a variety of roles with the total effort funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Included are policymakers and administrators within institutions of higher education as they begin to formulate a proposal, state administrators and reviewers as they indicate the types of information that proposals should contain and select proposals for funding, and project directors as they prepare proposals and conduct developmental projects funded under the Act. The following conclusions and implications are divided into three sections, each relating to the likely use of funds for institutional planning, state policies, or administration by project directors.

INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING

Some factors associated with a project's success are apparent before a proposal is submitted. These ingredients are related to the person selected to serve as project director, the preliminary planning, the institutional setting, and the project orientation selected. The findings from this study suggest some ways in which generalizations regarding these factors can contribute to the planning of projects funded under the Act.

Perhaps the most crucial decision made before a proposal is submitted is the selection of the project director and other key project personnel. Of course, in many instances, it is the proposed project director who initiates the proposal. The decision by others within the institution may be little more than acquiescence or refusal to endorse the proposal. Two characteristics of prospective project directors that are associated with effective developmental efforts are the ability to perform multiple change agent roles and status in the institution and community. The performance of multiple change agent roles by the project director was more highly associated with strengthening and continuation than any other variable considered in our study. Official status and personal status in the institution and community produce different outcomes. When several persons could serve as the project director, a comparison of official and personal status and likely performance of change agent roles could contribute greatly to selection of the person most likely to produce desired outcomes and an effective project.

The selection of the project director is closely related to other aspects of preliminary institutional planning, particularly to the selection of the unit through which the project will be administered. Typically the administering unit is the unit in which the project director is based. The findings of this study indicate that the developmental effort should be located in an academic

unit if experiential education is involved and in the same unit in which the institutional program is likely to be located.

In deciding to initiate a proposal, one very important consideration is the extent to which faculty attitudes within the appropriate reference group are positive regarding the proposed developmental efforts and community service in general. A supportive attitude by faculty colleagues is one of the variables most highly associated with strengthening and continuation of institutional and faculty involvement during the project and after funding under the Act has been terminated.

Although there was little association between prior experience of the sponsoring institution with community service activities and strengthening and continuation, this finding should be approached cautiously. Those institutions with a stronger tradition of community service typically achieved greater faculty involvement and linkage. However, the basis for the selection of projects funded under the Act included in this study was that they be relatively successful examples from the various categories of institutions. The study's findings do not allow conclusions to be drawn regarding the proportions of successful projects for each type of institution, or for institutions with a strong tradition of community service in contrast with institutions without such a tradition. It may be that a specific type of project can be successfully conducted by an institution that would be unsuccessful in conducting most other types of projects.

The findings indicated that, because no one project orientation is likely to be satisfactory for a wide range of projects, institutional planners need to clarify the approach most likely to be effective under the circumstances. Findings also indicated that for many projects a transactive approach was most effective. Chapter V described processes that can be used to promote joint planning by representatives of both the institution and the community, so that, if the proposal is funded, a mutually beneficial project leading to strengthening and continuation is likely to result.

STATE POLICIES

Perhaps the main way in which the study's findings can be useful to state administrators and proposal reviewers is in the formulation of guidelines indicating the types of information that should be included in proposals. Often the proposal contains most of the information that is considered when funding decisions are made. Study findings can also be used to brief persons who serve on advisory committees and who read proposals and make recommendations about funding. Part of the briefing might include criteria for the selection of the proposals that are most likely to lead to effective projects.

Some of the criteria that might be given special consideration for many types of projects include status of project director, evidence that he or she can

perform multiple change agent roles, and evidence that he or she plans to use multiple procedures for needs assessment. Special consideration should also be given to the institutional setting, and particularly to top-level administrative support for and faculty attitudes toward community service activities. However, a less-than-favorable institutional setting should not be a disqualifying factor if there is evidence that the key processes described in Chapter V are present.

The manner of funding should also be a concern of state policymakers. Since different developmental efforts require different amounts and lengths of funding to ensure continuation, state policies should be flexible enough to adjust to these realities.

The findings from this study and the interview guide (see Appendix C, pp. 132-35) might also be useful tools for the preparation of an evaluation of the total statewide effort funded under the Act. In addition to the identification of features associated with relatively extensive strengthening and continuation, some characteristics are suggested that might be used for comparative analysis of similar projects.

ADMINISTRATION BY PROJECT DIRECTORS

Although institutional planning and state policies are important influences on projects funded under Title I (HEA, 1965), the detailed strategies that lead to strengthening and continuation are typically formulated and implemented by the project directors and a few others closely associated with a project.

Successful developmental efforts funded under the Act reflect careful planning that took into consideration many of the influences and processes described in Chapters III and IV in this report. Findings indicate that particular attention should be given to multiple needs assessment procedures to establish broad recognition of and support for the developmental effort. It also seems that a project director should appraise candidly the extent to which faculty attitudes at the institutional and organizational unit levels are favorable toward the project. Depending on the extent of support, these attitudes can constitute a major facilitator or barrier to project success. Faculty attitudes at the institutional level appear crucial when they are sufficiently negative to constitute a potential veto of the project and when the developmental effort requires the participation of faculty members from many departments. Faculty attitudes at the organizational unit level appear to be most important when the project is concentrated in one or two departments.

Once the project is under way, there are several suggestions from the study that may be helpful to a project director. The extent of top-level administrative support and the faculty attitudes that exist prior to a project's funding under the Act tend to be less related to the extent of strengthening and continuation that result from the project than the selective efforts to increase administrative

and faculty support while the project is in operation. Furthermore, the ways in which this support is manifested are diffuse and pervasive.

Findings from the study indicate that involving the community in a variety of tasks during the development and implementation of the project is an important process in the strengthening and continuation of most outcomes. If the developmental effort emphasizes experiential education, community involvement is not as crucial to the success of the project.

Early consideration of the importance of continued financial support beyond funding under the Act, along with specific ways to acquire it, seems to be important. In most instances, supplemental sources come from institutional budgets or from public and private sources whose concerns match those of the project.

Since project directors have little control over the types of change agent roles that they can perform effectively, and even less control over their status, they should seek colleagues and administrative friends in the institution and community who complement their strengths and compensate for their weaknesses.

As the case examples at the conclusion of Chapter V illustrate, the strengthening and continuation that occurred as a result of efforts funded under the Act reflect many influences, processes, and relationships. To the extent which this study has identified relationships and alternatives that enable those associated with the efforts made possible by funding under the Act to place their decisions in a broader perspective and improve their decisions about specific projects, it will have served its purpose.

SUGGESTED USES OF THE REPORT BY ADJUNCT PERSONNEL AND STATE DIRECTORS

After reading this report, adjunct personnel and state Title I (HEA, 1965) directors indicated that information contained in this report could be beneficial in informing members of advisory councils, proposal reviewers, project personnel, proposal developers, and institutional administrators about factors found important in developmental efforts funded under the Act. One state Title I (HEA, 1965) director stated that this report could be used to:

1. Provide advisory council members with perspectives on the state program through better understanding of this cross section of the national scene;
2. Provide proposal reviewers with clues as to key factors in project success;
3. Provide project personnel, both staff and participants, with information about project elements found to be associated with success;
4. Enable proposal developers to build into their project design components found to produce favorable outcomes elsewhere and to become con-

vinced of the importance of getting the right people involved in and committed to the project;

5. Promote with institutional administrators an appreciation of the program's potential for total institutional development, beneficial influence on the regular curriculum, strengthening of staff, building of community relationships, and gaining an image of responsiveness to community needs;
6. Aid the legislature in understanding the significance of continuing education and community service as a priority area for funding on the basis of delivering specialized educational services in an effective manner to receptive audiences who will, through changed behavior, promote the goals of the state.

Other state Title I (HEA, 1965) directors stated:

> The report can be useful to members of advisory councils and others at the state level to the extent that it can help provide philosophical underpinnings for comprehensive state program development, as well as identify the necessary success factors to ensure program and project effectiveness.
>
> The report can help proposal developers and project personnel "plot a path" so that they can develop checklists of items necessary to ensure linkages between educational needs and educational recources.

One of the adjunct personnel stated:

> It appears to me that the findings of this report will be of extreme importance to proponents of the Title I (HEA, 1965) program. At federal, state, institution, and community levels, proponents of the program have been called on to justify the beneficial results of the programs each time that renewed funding, to say nothing of increased funding, was requested. All too frequently this justification had to be made with assumptions and guesses rather than with facts drawn from careful research. This report, through careful documentation, will give proponents of these programs, including many legislators at both state and national levels, facts with which to justify reasonable requests for funding for these programs.
>
> The findings of the study also provide, for the careful reader, a how-to manual for state agencies, institutions, and communities interested in expanding or developing Title I programs. In particular, the processes discussed in Chapter IV should be of help to all individuals concerned with Title I projects. Experienced program personnel, as well as beginners, should find these processes helpful for confirming those approaches that were well done and to point out ways of improving those approaches that were not.
>
> While it is true that Title I (HEA, 1965) projects were studied, it seems to me that the findings could apply to efforts to develop other types of adult and continuing education programs.

Appendix A: Research Methods

The type of investigation undertaken in the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study is generally referred to as "naturalistic research" (Fox, 1969, p. 453). In naturalistic research, investigators take natural settings, already established and functioning, and add a data collection dimension so that they can draw conclusions about the relative effectiveness of various alternative patterns selected and implemented by decision makers in those settings. The data that were collected in this study concerned alternatives that had been used, the relative effectiveness of these alternatives given situational influences, and their respective consequences related to strengthening and continuation outcomes.

FUNCTIONAL FLOW OF ACTIVITIES

The study's functional flow of activities was designed to take into consideration the interrelationships among the various activities. The functional flow of activities is presented in Fig. 5.

Planning and Literature Review

The first two months were devoted to planning and initiating the study. A review of literature related to Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 was begun and continued as new and relevant literature was identified. Guidelines, evaluations, and project reports from states where interviewing was to be conducted were read.

In-Process Consultation

In-process consultation about the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study was conducted periodically with members of the staff of the Community Service and Continuing Education Program in the Bureau of Postsecondary Education of the U.S. Office of Education. Consultations with those individuals concerning the way in which the study was progressing provided needed information about decisions related to:

1. Relevant literature and project reports to be reviewed,
2. Appropriate timing for gathering data,
3. Selection of interviewee sites and transactive seminar participants,
4. Preparation of interim and year-end reports.

Through in-process consultations, persons involved at the national level were acquainted with the study's emerging findings.

Activity	Month 2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
1. Review of literature and reports	———	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
2. In-process consultations with national Title I personnel	———	.....	———	.....	———	.....	———	.....	———	.....	———	.....
3. Pilot interviewing and development of interview guide	.....	———	.....	.....	.....	.....	———	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
4. Transactive seminars	.....	———	.....	———	.....	.....	.....	———	———	.....	.....	.....
5. Liaison with California study	.....	———	———	.....	———	.....	.....	.....	.....	———	.....	.....
6. Sampling	———	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
7. Data gathering	.....	.....	———	———	———	———	.....	.....	———	———	.....	.....
8. Data analysis	.....	.....	———	———	———	———	.....	.....	———	———	.....	.....
9. Preparation of reports	.....	.....	.....	.....	———	———	———	———	.....	———	———	———

126

Legend: ——— indicates primary effort
..... indicates preliminary, follow-up, or ongoing secondary effort

Fig. 5: ***Functional Flow of Activities.***

Pilot Interviews

During the third month, pilot interviews were conducted in two states, Illinois and Indiana, to field-test the interview guides that had been developed. Based on this field testing, the interview guides were revised.

Transactive Seminars

Before field interviews began, a transactive seminar was conducted as part of the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study in each of the six participating states. A transactive seminar engaged persons from various community service and continuing education administrative levels in a dialogue about problems of mutual concern to facilitate what Dunn (1971, p. 210) has called "creative social learning." The seminars conducted in this project helped identify trends affecting community service and continuing education oriented to community problem solving, as well as influences and processes thought to be particularly important in facilitating or hindering the strengthening and continuation of community service and continuing education programs.

The transactive seminars involved approximately fifty-five participants in the six states in which field interviews were to be conducted. Usually, the participants in these transactive seminars included: (1) the state director, (2) persons in the state who were knowledgeable about community problems and efforts to cope with them, (3) representatives of institutions of higher education, and (4) members of the Illinois-based staff. Each seminar was approximately one day in length.

Relationship to California Study

Examination of alternative administrative strategies and funding patterns that facilitate strengthening and continuation of community service and continuing education programs relevant to community problem solving was initiated in a recently completed study in California. The report of that study is entitled *Developing Community Services in the Seventies: New Roles for Higher Education* (Deshler, Farmer, and Sheats, 1975). Provisions were made in the budgets of both the California study and the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study to permit a mutually beneficial sharing of methodology, findings, and conceptualization as the two studies progressed. Although the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study built on the methodology and theoretical conceptualizations of the California study, differences in the ways in which Title I (HEA, 1965) has been interpreted and implemented in the various states made it essential for the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study to develop and use somewhat different methods than those used in the California study. These differences were not so

extensive as to make the two studies incompatible with each other. Rather, the two studies had enough in common to complement and supplement each other. The "Alternative Patterns . . ." study was not, therefore, merely a replication of the California study.

Sampling Procedures

Most of the data were obtained through interviews with persons knowledgeable about community service and continuing education activities in institutions of higher education that had received developmental funding under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. To ensure representativeness, dimensional sampling (Arnold, 1970) was used to select the states and institutions within those states from which data were to be obtained. Dimensional sampling has been described by Arnold (1970, p. 147) as follows:

> Briefly, the approach is a three-step one: (1) explicitly delineate the universe to which you eventually wish to generalize; (2) spell out what appear to be the most important dimensions along which the members of this universe vary and develop a typology that includes the various combinations of values on these dimensions; (3) use this typology as a sampling frame for selecting a small number of cases from the universe, typically drawing one case from each cell of the typology.

Dimensions that were used for sampling purposes were:

1. Types of state guidelines for implementing Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965,
2. Geographical distribution,
3. Urban, suburban, and rural settings,
4. Types of institutions of higher education,
5. Types of community problems addressed,
6. Types of interviewee role perspectives within institutions of higher education.

The states in the sample were selected partially on the basis of the dimensions listed above and partially on the basis of having successful state programs funded under the Act. Similarly, the institutions within each state were selected on the basis of the dimensions and the quality of the projects funded under the Act. The research staff believed that more could be learned about the factors affecting strengthening and continuation by examining states and institutions in which considerable strengthening and continuation reportedly had occurred than from study by a random sample of projects funded under the Act. As a result, projects in which relatively little strengthening and continuation had occurred are under-represented in the sample.

Because of the use of dimensional sampling, it was decided to obtain data in several institutions of higher education in each of the six states. The state directors for community service and continuing education activities funded under the Act in Colorado, Connecticut, Georgia, Minnesota, Oklahoma, and

Tennessee were consulted. They indicated their willingness to participate in the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study. Data were obtained in Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota during the first year (1974-75) and in Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee during the second year (1975-76) of the study. Descriptions of the ways in which Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 was administered in these states can be found in Appendix B.

During the two-year period, interviews were conducted with 288 individuals at thirty-seven institutions in the six participating states. Initially, it was thought that interviews with students and community agency personnel would yield valuable information concerning the strengthening and continuation process. It was found in pilot testing, however, that typically neither students nor community agency personnel, even though involved in community service and continuing education activities, were knowledgeable about or had access to information concerning decision making and the administration of projects funded under Title I. Thereafter, interviews, with a few exceptions, were scheduled only with project directors, institutional administrators including financial officers, and faculty members. The distribution of field interviews according to type of institution and state is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: *Distribution of Field Interviews According to Type of Institution and State.*

Type of institution	Number of institutions in which interviewing was conducted in each state						
	Conn.	Ga.	Minn.	Colo.	Okla.	Tenn.	Total
Land-grant institution	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
State colleges and universities	2	2	2	3	3	3	15
Community and junior colleges	1	2	1	2	1	1	8
Private colleges and universities	2	1	2	1	1	1	8
Total	6	6	6	7	6	6	37
	Number of interviews in each type of institution in each state						
Land-grant institution	9	15	13	10	8	11	66
State colleges and universities	18	17	15	23	22	24	119
Community and junior colleges	10	11	10	8	8	3	50
Private colleges and universities	16	6	13	4	8	6	53
Total	53	49	51	45	46	44	288

The distribution of field interviews according to type of interviewee is presented in Table 4.

Data Gathering

Data were obtained through the use of "elite and specialized interviewing" (Dexter, 1970) conducted with present and past project directors and others

familiar with the projects funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. According to Dexter:

> An elite interview is an interview with any interviewee — and the stress should be on the word "any" — who in terms of the current purposes of the interviewer is given special, nonstandardized treatment. By special, nonstandardized treatment I mean:
>
> 1. Stressing the interviewee's definition of the situation,
> 2. Encouraging the interviewee to structure the account of the situation,
> 3. Letting the interviewee introduce to a considerable extent (an extent which will, of course, vary from project to project and from interviewer to interviewer) his notions of what he regards as relevant, instead of relying on the investigator's notions of relevance.
>
> . . . In elite interviewing, as here defined . . . the investigator is willing and often eager to let the interviewee teach him what the problem, the question, the situation, is — to the limits, of course, of the interviewer's ability to perceive relationships to his basic problems, whatever these may be.
>
> In the standard interview, the typical survey, a deviation is ordinarily handled statistically; but in an elite interview, an exception, a deviation, an unusual interpretation may suggest a revision, a reinterpretation, an extension, a new approach. In an elite interview it cannot at all be assumed — as it is in the typical survey — that the persons or categories of persons are equally important (Dexter, 1970, pp. 5-6).

Table 4: *Distribution of Field Interviews According to Type of Interviewees and State.*

Type of interviewees	Number of interviews						
	Conn.	Ga.	Minn.	Colo.	Okla.	Tenn.	All States
Administrators	25	14	26	23	20	20	128
Fiscal officers	0	5	2	1	2	1	11
Project directors	16	18	14	12	14	16	90
Faculty members[a]	9	12	6	6	9	7	49
Students	3	0	1	1	0	0	5
Project staff	0	0	2	2	1	0	5
Total	53	49	51	45	46	44	288

Elite and specialized interviewing is done with an interview guide. In the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study, the interview guide consisted of open-ended questions generated from relevant literature, in-process consultations with persons involved at the national level, and transactive seminars. The types of questions that were asked of project directors, administrators, and faculty members appear in Appendix C. Most of the interviews were held in the offices of interviewees, making it possible to consult files during interviews. A few interviews were conducted in meeting rooms scheduled by the project directors. The length of the interviews averaged one hour. Most of the interviews were relatively free from interruptions; many interviewees left instructions not to be disturbed. In order to encourage candor, interviews were not tape recorded.

The main function of the interviewer was to focus attention on a given experience and its effects rather than to ask specific questions. The characteristics of this type of interview have been described by Dexter as follows:

> 1. Persons interviewed are known to have participated in an uncontrolled but observed social situation.
> 2. The hypothetically significant elements, patterns, and total structure of this situation have been previously analyzed by the investigator. Through this situational analysis, he has arrived at a set of hypotheses concerning the meaning and effects of determinate aspects of the situation.
> 3. On the basis of this analysis, the investigator has fashioned an *interview plan* which contains a general idea of the major areas of inquiry and the hypotheses (in our case, perhaps better called the considerations) which locate (or suggest) the pertinence of data to be obtained in (or from) the interviewer.
> 4. The interview itself is focused in the *subjective experiences* of persons exposed to the preanalyzed situation. The array of their reported responses to this situation or type of situation enables the investigator:
>   a. To test the validity of hypotheses (or the pertinence of considerations) derived from analysis and social theory; and
>   b. To ascertain unanticipated responses to the situation, thus giving rise to fresh hypotheses.
> 5. The interview is more successful when the interviewer can obtain clues, not only through the verbal reports of the subjective experiences but through observation of stance in interviewing, and even more through incidental observations (not actually part of the question-response interview) of subject's behavior which allow further insight into experience (Dexter, 1970, pp. 83-84).

Analysis of Data

As has been described above, data were obtained in the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study from:

1. Reviewing literature and reports,
2. In-process consultation,
3. Transactive seminars, and
4. Elite and specialized interviewing.

The data obtained from these sources were analyzed through the use of one or more of the following types of content analysis adapted from Merton (1968, p. 569):

1. *Symbol-counts:* consists of identifying and counting specified key symbols in communication.
2. *One-dimensional classification of symbols:* a slight elaboration of the previous type. Symbols are classified according to whether they are employed, broadly speaking, in positive (favorable) or negative (unfavorable) contexts.
3. *Item analysis:* classification of segments of sections of data. This requires selection of significant and insignificant items on the basis of a theory.
4. *Thematic analysis:* classification of the explicit and implicit (symbolic) themes in the data. This, as distinct from item analysis, deals with the supposed cumulative significance of a series of items.

5. *Structural analysis:* concerned with the interrelations of the various themes in the data. These relationships may be *complementary* or *interfering*.

Further guidelines for structural-functional analysis were obtained from Levy (1968, pp. 21-28).

Because of the overall research design and data collection processes used, symbol-counting was generally found to provide little useful information that could not be obtained more effectively and efficiently through the use of one or more of the other types of content analysis listed above. Thematic and structural analyses were particularly valuable in analyzing the data. Certain explicit or implicit themes and structures were identified that pertained to all or most of the projects examined.

The content analysis process included the following steps:

1. Through the use of an interrater reliability process, the data were reviewed to correct for objective distortion of information received from all of the interviewees in a particular location;
2. The data were classified within inductively generated categories of themes, structures, and patterns. Staff members independently nominated these inductive categories;
3. Each nominated inductive category was then examined to determine its subcategories, its interrelationship with other categories, and its relationship to the data as a whole;
4. Further thematic and structural analyses were conducted within each category and among categories. In this process, the focus was placed most intensively on what had been reported in the interviews concerning influences and processes that were found to facilitate or hinder strengthening and continuation of community service and continuing education programs relevant to community problem solving.
5. Data were quantified in order to permit statistical analysis.

Through content analysis, five strengthening and five continuation outcomes were identified which have been presented and illustrated in Chapter II. Each outcome for each project was rated (high, middle, low, or none) according to the degree to which strengthening or continuation occurred. The increases in size, energy, centrality, and durability of programs were the criteria on which the outcomes were rated.

The inductively generated categories were classified as either situational influence variables or process variables affecting strengthening and continuation. (These variables are discussed in Chapters III and IV.) For each project, each influence and process variable was coded according to its presence or use.

The influence and process variables were coded for statistical analysis in different ways, depending on their nature. The coding instruments that were used are located in Appendices D and E.

1. Seven variables were rated according to the presence or absence of each of their subcategories. Although the subcategories of each of these variables were related to each other, no single composite rating was logical for any of these variables. The seven variables were:
   Expertise of the project director
   Project initiation
   Location of the developmental project
   Location of the community service program being developed
   Location of the institutional community service program
   Selection of project topics
   Method of delivery
2. Eleven variables were rated according to their degree of presence. They were dichotomous or limited category variables for which only one rating was appropriate. These eleven variables were:
   Prior institutional experience with community service and continuing education
   Status of the project director in the institution of higher education
   Status of the project director in the community
   Attitude of the institutional administration toward community service
   Attitude of the unit administration toward community service
   Attitude of the institutional faculty toward community service
   Attitude of the unit faculty toward community service
   Amount of funding
   Duration of project funding
   Assessing needs: processes
   Identifying institutional resources
3. Four variables were rated according to the presence or absence of each of their subcategories. A single composite rating was also obtained for each of these variables by adding the number of subcategories rated present. These four variables were:
   Developing administrative support
   Developing faculty support
   Involving the community — who
   Involving the community — how
4. Four variables were rated according to the degree of presence of each of their subcategories. A single composite rating was also obtained for each of these variables by adding the degree of presence of the subcategories. These four variables were:
   Change agent role in the institution of higher education

Change agent role in the community
Assessing needs: types of needs assessed
Obtaining supplemental resources

To test and to ensure coding reliability, members of the staff were paired and asked to rate the variables of the same projects independently. Initial trials indicated that a relatively low degree of rating reliability had been obtained. After identifying and reducing what seemed to be the sources of ambiguity, independent ratings by staff members on subsequent trials agreed at least 85 percent of the time, a level considered satisfactory by the staff.

After each variable for each project was rated, the following statistical analyses were performed:

1. An intercorrelation matrix was computed to determine the statistically significant associations between outcome variables and influence and process variables. The correlations among variables based on data from the first year and from the second year are listed in Appendix H. Only those correlation coefficients significantly different from zero at the .05 level or below have been reported.
2. Utilizing selected variables, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to establish the degree of statistically significant difference between the groups rated high, middle, and low for each strengthening and continuation outcome. For the first year's multivariate analyses, different variables were selected for each outcome. For the second year's multivariate analyses, the same group of variables was used for all outcomes. The variables used and the results of each multivariate analysis of variance are listed in Appendix G.
3. In order to permit valid comparisons between the outcome correlations of similar variables over both years of the study, multiple correlations were computed and presented in Appendix H for the subcategories of selected second-year variables. Multiple correlations were also computed for a selected group of variables thought to be the most important ones in affecting the strengthening and continuation outcomes. These latter correlations are shown in Appendix I.
4. To test the characteristics of each type of project orientation discussed in Chapter V, the orientation of each project was determined based on theoretical compositions as described in the California Study (Deshler, Farmer, and Sheats, 1975). The variables which were thought, on the basis of qualitative content analysis, to characterize each of the orientations were next identified by the staff. The statistical means of each of these variables for each orientation were calculated and compared with the statistical means of the other orientations. In this way, the variables which differed most among the three orientations were identified. When these variables were compared to the variables which correlated highly with

each orientation, they were found to be similar. Multivariate analyses of variance were computed to establish statistically significant differences among the three orientations. The statistical means of the discriminating variables and the results of the multivariate analyses of variance are listed in Appendices J and K.

Although both qualitative and quantitative analyses were used in drawing conclusions, the findings were based primarily on the qualitative data. Qualitative analysis of the data utilized the statements of interviewees about the nature of influences, processes, and outcomes and their interrelationships. Theoretical formulations were also used to organize data for analysis and interpretation of findings. The main procedures for the quantitative analysis of data were correlation and multivariate analysis of variance.

Because of the inductive and exploratory nature of the study, refinement in the methods and instruments of data gathering and analysis during the second year produced more precise and consistent results. More comprehensive data about continuation outcomes were obtained. Greater attention was paid to the subcategories of each process variable and their relationships to strengthening and continuation outcomes. Because of the refinements in data gathering and analysis, findings contained in the interim report were used to predict findings from the second-year data. When qualitative and quantitative findings from each year were compared, findings from the first year were generally substantiated and extended. A few first-year findings were modified, usually as a result of differences in state agency programs and conditions.

Independent Evaluation

The interim and final reports of the study were submitted for review to a four-person External Evaluation Committee. This committee consisted of individuals who were considered particularly knowledgeable about continuing education in general and about activities funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 in particular. Membership of the External Evaluation Committee was decided on through consultation with the staff of the Community Service and Continuing Education Program of the U.S. Office of Education. Its members were:

James M. Furman, Executive Director, Illinois Board of Higher Education

Charles H. Lawshe, Vice-President Emeritus, Purdue University

Paul H. Sheats, Professor Emeritus, Graduate School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles

George B. Strother, Professor of Business, Graduate School of Business, University of Wisconsin

The members of the External Evaluation Committee were asked to judge the extent to which the stated objectives of the project had been accomplished and to critique the value of that accomplishment. A copy of the evaluation reports from the External Evaluation Committee members was provided to the staff of the Community Service and Continuing Education Program of the U.S. Office of Education.

FACILITIES AND PERSONNEL

This project was conducted through the Office for the Study of Continuing Professional Education, a campuswide unit affiliated with the College of Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. James A. Farmer, Jr., the associate director of that office, and Alan B. Knox, the former director, provided leadership for the project. They were assisted in designing the project, conducting field interviews, analyzing the data, and writing the report by Carolyn Barbulesco, John Carpenter, Barbara Jain, Robert Means, and Phyllis Safman. Gregory Anderson and Jan Kubik conducted interviews during the first year of the project. Darrel Caulley provided valuable assistance in statistical computation.

In each of the states in which data were collected, a professor of adult and continuing education served in the role of adjunct personnel. These persons helped the University of Illinois–based staff understand the unique ways that Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 has been conceptualized and implemented in each state. The adjunct personnel were:

Connecticut, *Richard Whitfield*, Professor of Education, University of Connecticut

Georgia, *Curtis Ulmer*, Professor and Head, Department of Adult Education, University of Georgia

Minnesota, *Harlan G. Copeland*, Associate Professor of Education, University of Minnesota

Colorado, *Douglas Sjogren*, Professor of Education, Colorado State University

Oklahoma, *Eugene Cates*, Associate Professor of Adult Education, University of Oklahoma

Tennessee, *John Peters*, Professor of Adult Education, University of Tennessee

In summary, the data collection phase of the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study was based on the dimensional sampling technique of Arnold (1970) and on the elite and specialized interviewing technique of Dexter (1970). The data analysis phase was accomplished through a type of content analysis described by Merton (1968), to which was added a data quantification and statistical analysis dimension.

FURTHER NEEDED RESEARCH

Much could be learned by a replication of the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study, examining developmental efforts funded under Title I (HEA, 1965) elsewhere or under different funding. It may well be that there are factors that did not emerge in the "Alternative Patterns . . ." study, either because they did not occur in the situations studied or because they were not isolated as variables that could be as important as those described in this report.

Much could also be learned by examining in tandem: (1) efforts funded under the Act to strengthen community service programs and (2) the impact of the community service programs developed.

Appendix B: Title I Administration in Connecticut, Georgia, Minnesota, Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee

CONNECTICUT

Connecticut established a Title I state agency in 1966. Since then Connecticut has used $1,608,248 in Title I grant funds to activate 120 community service and continuing education programs in twenty-four public and private colleges and universities. During this time the colleges provided a total of $1,069,704 in institutional matching funds to complete the financing of these programs. In addition, during the biennium FY 1967-69 the state legislature provided grants of $189,835 to fund ten programs and to partially support nine of the above 120 federally funded programs.

The state Title I agency is administered by a full-time director, who is a staff member of the Connecticut Commission for Higher Education located in Hartford. He works in cooperation with a five-member subcommittee on community service, a nine-member advisory committee on federal matters, and the eighteen-member Commission for Higher Education in establishing program plans, reviewing proposals, and awarding grants. The advisory committee is composed of representatives from institutions of higher education and the general public.

Invitations to participate in the Title I grant program are distributed by campus coordinators at each institution. State departments, municipalities, agencies, and community groups are also invited to cooperate with institutions in the planning of potential programs. Proposal writers are invited to individual conferences where the state director provides assistance in program planning, budget formulations, and proposal preparation.

After proposals are submitted, those who have submitted the proposals are invited to supply needed supplementary information and to participate in negotiation. Each member of the subcommittee rates each proposal on four criteria: problem urgency, resources available, project quality, and impact potential. A consensus is reached on a funding package. Unsuccessful applicants receive a written explanation for nonfunding and suggestions for alternate sources.

GEORGIA

Georgia established a state plan for community service and continuing education programs in accordance with Title I (HEA, 1965) in 1966. Since that time the state Title I agency has received $2,010,721 in Title I funds which

have been allocated to thirty-two funded institutions; ten additional institutions were able to become involved in Title I activities. During this period matching funds from institutions throughout the state totaled $1,281,286.

Until 1974, the University of Georgia functioned as the state Title I agency. The Georgia Center for Continuing Education, a unit of the University of Georgia, had administrative responsibility for the state's program. In April 1974, the governor established the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission and delegated to it several federal programs including Title I. Through written agreement, the Georgia Center for Continuing Education presently administers the program for the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission.

The administrative staff of the state Title I agency includes a state coordinator and a training coordinator. Prior to 1974, the State Advisory Council, composed of representatives from higher education, government, business and industry, and the general public, assisted the state Title I agency by providing insight into educational needs related to community problem solving. In 1974, the State Advisory Council was discontinued after the creation of the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission, which has assumed the functions of the advisory council.

In addition, three other groups continue to provide helpful guidance for the operation of the program in Georgia. The first group, the Council of Participating Institutions, is comprised of one representative from each postsecondary educational institution in the state. Members of the council act as a liaison between the administrative unit and their institutions to identify and rank community problems.

The second group assisting the administrative unit is the committee for establishing criteria and procedures for selection of proposals. Serving on the committee are eight persons representing both public and private, two- and four-year institutions of higher education, and vocational-technical schools. The function of this committee is to review annually the criteria established for preparing proposals and making suggestions regarding changes both in the criteria and in the procedures for proposal submission and review.

The proposal review committee, the third group, is composed of fifteen members: the eight persons who serve on the criteria committee and seven other individuals elected by members of the Council of Participating Institutions. All fifteen members represent postsecondary educational institutions. The responsibilities of this committee are to review and rank proposals submitted to the administrative unit and to make suggestions regarding funding levels of the proposals.

MINNESOTA

In 1966 Minnesota developed its first state plan for community service and continuing education under Title I. Since that time the state Title I agency has

received $1,804,256 in Title I funds for community service and continuing education programs in twenty-one institutions of higher education. Through the efforts of the twenty-one funded institutions, consortial arrangements were established to include thirteen additional institutions in the community problem-solving efforts funded under Title I. The institutions of higher education have matched the federal money with $600,817 in institutional funds. Other matching funds, totaling $185,000, have come from other units of government.

In Minnesota, the state Title I agency is located in the state offices of the Higher Education Coordinating Commission (HECC). This agency is administered by the coordinator of community service and continuing education who utilizes the expertise of other Higher Education Coordinating Commission staff as well as two panels of professionals and practitioners for review and awarding of Title I grants. A Consultants Panel consists of sixteen professionals experienced and knowledgeable in the areas of social problems in Minnesota. The function of this panel is to identify community educational needs.

The Technical Review Panel consists of three members from each of the five postsecondary education systems, i.e., private schools, community junior colleges, area vocational schools, state colleges (now state universities), and the University of Minnesota. The representatives of this panel include administrators and faculty members with expertise in urban and community problem solving. The functions of the panel are reviewing proposals and tentatively deciding dollar amounts to be later allocated by HECC to participating institutions.

COLORADO

Colorado has participated in the Title I (HEA, 1965) program since its inception. The Colorado Commission on Higher Education serves as the designated state agency for administration of the program. The commission relies on a gubernatorially appointed Title I Advisory Council for assistance in developing the annual program plan and determining appropriate allocations of the available funds, according to the priorities set forth in the Colorado State Plan for Title I.

Believing that community problems are best solved by informed community decision makers, Colorado has stressed community leadership development as the primary thrust of the Title I program over the nine years of its operation. This emphasis has provided an appropriate focus for higher education's federally aided efforts to assist actual and potential leaders in selected Colorado communities in attaining a better understanding of current and emerging community problems and of ways and means available for their solution or prevention.

Since its initiation in 1966 with only the two major public universities participating, the Colorado program has by now involved at one time or another all but one of the state's twenty-six two-year and four-year, public and private institutions of higher education. Federal funding provided to Colorado in support of the program through FY 1975 has totaled $1,588,216, with the participating institutions providing some $925,000 of additional support for the program, for a total expenditure in excess of $2.5 million.

Since the commission is responsible for both the coordination and the funding of the off-campus continuing education programs of all Colorado public four-year institutions of higher education under a single statewide program plan, as well as for the administration of the Title I program, it has sought to assure the integration and mutual reinforcement of these complementary program components. It has actively encouraged interinstitutional cooperation in both program planning and resource sharing.

In this way, using Title I funds for community service program development and outreach tuition income for off-campus instructional program development, the commission serves as the primary planning agency in the effort to make the resources of Colorado's institutions of higher education more readily accessible to the citizens of the state for both community service and continuing education programming. Thus, the federal support provided under Title I directly stimulates and assists in the development of a comprehensive, coordinated, statewide plan for outreach programming in Colorado.

OKLAHOMA

Oklahoma established a Title I state agency in 1966 at the University of Oklahoma, and under new federal amendments moved that agency to the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education in 1972. Since the beginning of the program in Oklahoma there have been 147 funded projects (through FY 1976 funding) using the $1,602,534 of federal funds and matched by $1,105,343 in local contributions. The maximum number of institutions involved in any one year was twenty (in FY 1973), and the minimum number was seven (in FY 1975). Over one-half of the some forty institutions in the state, public and private, have participated in Title I activities at some time.

The Title I state agency is administered by a full-time director, who is a staff member of the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education located in the State Capitol Complex in Oklahoma City. He works with institutional representatives (called public service officers) and the state regents in developing state priorities for the Annual Plan Amendment, and he seeks to use the federal money available to develop the continuing education and community service capability at the state's institutions of higher education. This is done through the project method, but with the emphasis on total development

of a state plan of continuing education and community service, and not simply as a mechanism for dividing the federal funds among projects.

Invitations to participate in the Title I grant program are distributed to each institution's president and public service officer and to interested individuals on an extensive mailing list. The projects are evaluated, critiqued, and reviewed. They are then passed on by the Oklahoma state regents for higher education in regular session. The director of the agency acts as a resource for any interested institution in the preparation of proposal ideas and serves as a monitor for ongoing projects. Annual meetings are held to disseminate state plan priorities, current funding levels expected, and proposal development information.

TENNESSEE

Tennessee has participated in the HEA Title I program during the eleven years of funding since its enactment in FY 1966. During this period Tennessee has utilized federal appropriations of $1,991,958 to conduct 151 projects at nine four-year private institutions and fifteen public institutions (including all five campuses of the University of Tennessee, six senior regional universities, and eight community colleges). Nonfederal matching funds of $1,212,584 for these projects have primarily been provided by these twenty-five participating institutions, including $156,886 more than required by law.

The University of Tennessee — the State University and Federal Land-Grant Institution — serves as the designated state agency for administering the program. Within the university, the state agency for Title I was established as a department within the Division of Continuing Education. (The state agency for Title I was a department of the university's Institute for Public Service from October 7, 1970, through March 31, 1976.) The state agency has had at least one full-time administrator since June 1, 1966. The director is responsible for providing leadership in developing, promoting, and administering all aspects of the Title I (HEA, 1965) program in Tennessee.

The governor of Tennessee and the president of the University of Tennessee have jointly appointed a sixteen-member State Advisory Council for Title I to work with the state agency in implementing this program. This council is composed of leaders from higher education, business, government, and the community. It is involved in the development of the Annual Program Amendment, the review of proposals, and the approval of projects. The council is provided progress reports of selected projects at semiannual meetings. A five-member Executive Committee works with the state agency between these meetings.

The state agency also consults with representatives of the governor's office and the Tennessee General Assembly (state comptroller) on the development

of the annual program amendment and the review of proposals and approval of projects. There is a four-member advisory committee to the University of Tennessee's vice-president for continuing education who assists in the review of proposals and approval of projects.

The request for proposals and program information are directed to the chief executive officer of each eligible campus and selected faculty members and staff. There is an annual workshop for project directors and Title I (HEA, 1965) institutional representatives to facilitate the sharing of specific project information, to foster working relationships, and to solicit inputs on programing interests.

Appendix C: Questions for Administrators, Project Directors, and Faculty Members

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please answer the following questions in a sentence or two.

1. What are the primary functions of this institution of higher education?

2. a. What were the nature and extent of community service and continuing education in your institution before Title I?

   b. What were the nature and extent of community service related to community problem solving before Title I?

3. What is the nature of your involvement in, or relationship to, Title I (ask for general or specific project perspective)?

4. What effects have soft developmental monies had on this institution?

STRENGTHENING AND CONTINUATION

Strengthening refers to starting, extending, or expanding through Title I the institution's community service efforts related to community problem solving. Continuation refers to maintaining what was strengthened at a new or increased level of activity. Please answer the following questions in greater detail.

5. What was strengthened as a result of Title I funding to this institution in general, and as specifically related to your project?

6. What was (will be) continued of that which was started, extended, or expanded under Title I? If nothing, why?

7. Did (do) you intend to continue what was started, extended, or expanded under Title I after Title I funding terminated? If yes, by what means? If no, why not?

8. What factors brought about this strengthening and continuation?

9. a. What was done to bring about strengthening?

   b. In your judgment, what situational factors influenced strengthening?

10. a. What was done to bring about strengthening?

    b. In your judgment, what situational factors influenced strengthening?

11. What is (was) the nature of administrative support (institutional or unit) for your Title I efforts?

12. What has been (is being) (can be) done to develop administrative support for your Title I efforts, and how has (will) this affected strengthening (continuation) of these efforts?

13. How does the Title I project fit into the organizational structure of this institution, and how does (will) fit affect strengthening (continuation) of that effort?

14. What is the status of the Title I project director(s), and how does (will) it affect strengthening (continuation) of Title I efforts?

15. How do you view the Title I coordinator's or project director's role in bringing about change in order to strengthen (continue) Title I efforts?

    a. Catalyst: Did the project director prod people to do things related to Title I efforts?

    b. Solution giver: Did the project director push definite resources to be used and solutions to be adopted?

    c. Process helper: Did the project director help others in developing the necessary skills to become effective problem solvers?

    d. Resource linker: Did the project director link resources in the institution of higher education with needs in the community?

16. a. How did the manner of funding affect strengthening (continuation)?

    b. What changes in the manner of funding would facilitate strengthening (continuation)?

17. a. What resources did you use to supplement or continue Title I efforts?

    b. How did you obtain these resources?

    c. What other potential resources could you use?

18. What is the general attitude of the faculty at your institution toward your Title I efforts?

19. What was (is being) (can be) done to develop faculty support for your Title I efforts, and how has (will) this affected strengthening (continuation) of these efforts?

20. How did your Title I efforts affect the instructional programs in this institution?

21. What is the general attitude of students at your institution toward your Title I efforts?

22. What was (is being) (can be) done to develop student support for your Title I efforts, and how did (will) this affect strengthening (continuation) of those efforts?

23. How were the relationships with the community established to release the educational resources of the institution of higher education to assist in community problem solving?

24. Who assessed the educational needs addressed by your Title I efforts, and how was the assessment done?

    a. Normative: Were experts involved in the assessment? How?

    b. Felt: Were people in the community asked what they thought the needs were? How?

    c. Expressed: Did people demand a specific educational program? How?

    d. Comparative: Did you compare what your institution offers with what other institutions offer? How?

25. Who identified the resources in the institution which were relevant to community problem solving? How was this identification done?

26. What criteria were used to select your project topic? How did these criteria affect strengthening (continuation) of Title I efforts?

27. What was the relationship of your project's goals to the institution's goals and priorities, and how did it affect strengthening (continuation) of Title I efforts?

28. How was evaluation conducted, and how was it used to strengthen (continue) your Title I efforts?

GENERAL QUESTIONS

29. What other factors in the institution and community have facilitated or limited strengthening and continuation of your Title I efforts?

30. If you were asked to give advice to another administrator, what would you suggest to improve the possibility that the Title I efforts would become an integral part of this institution?

Appendix D: Rating Instrument for Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota

Project name _____

Institution _____

Outcomes	Degree of strengthening	Degree of continuation
Institutional involvement		
Faculty involvement		
Instructional program		
Linkage with community		
Institutional image		

History of Community Service
0 = None
1 = Moderate
2 = Extensive

Status of Project Director
0 = No data
1 = Low
2 = High

Extent of Top-Level Support
Institutional: 0 = No data
1 = Little
2 = Extensive
Unit: 0 = No Jata
1 = Little
2 = Extensive

Selecting Project Topics

Fit with higher education institution goals	0 1
Timely	0 1
Both	0 1
None	0 1

Project Scope
0 = No data
1 = Narrowly aimed
2 = Questionable
3 = Broadly aimed

Project Orientation
0 = No data
1 = Higher education institution-oriented
2 = Community-oriented
3 = Transactive-oriented

Faculty Attitudes
Institutional: 0 = No data
1 = Hostile
2 = Indifferent
3 = Positive
Unit: 0 = No data
1 = Hostile
2 = Indifferent
3 = Positive

Developing Faculty Support

Monetary	0 = None
Status	1 = 1 of 3 incentives
Competence	2 = 2 of 3 incentives
	3 = 3 of 3 incentives

Organizational Structure

Individuals	0 1
Noncommunity service structure	0 1
Existing or new community service structure	0 1
Interinstitutional	0 1
Noncommunity service structure and interinstitutional	0 1
Existing/new and interinstitutional	0 1

Change Agent Role

Catalyst	1 = 1 of 4 roles
Solution giver	2 = 2 of 4 roles
Resource linker	3 = 3 of 4 roles
Process helper	4 = 4 of 4 roles

Types of Needs Assessed

Normative	0 = None
Felt	1 = 1 of 4 types
Expressed	2 = 2 of 4 types
Comparative	3 = 3 of 4 types
	4 = 4 of 4 types

Developing Administrative Support

Pressure in higher education institution	0 = None
Pressure in community	1 = 1 of 4
Publicity	2 = 2 of 4
Documented feedback	3 = 3 of 4
	4 = 4 of 4

Obtaining Supplemental Resources

Federal government	0 = None
State government	1 = 1 of 7 sources
Foundations	2 = 2 of 7 sources
Community sources	3 = 3 of 7 sources
Other higher education institutions	4 = 4 of 7 sources
Institution funds	5 = 5 of 7 sources
Tuition or fees for community service	

Involving the Community

Ties with community leaders	0 = None
Ties with agencies/organizations	1 = 1 of 3 ties
Ties with minorities	2 = 2 of 3 ties
	3 = 3 of 3 ties

Needs Assessment Process

0 = None
1 = Informal
2 = Formal

Resource Identification

0 = None
1 = Guess
2 = Informal
3 = Formal

Order of Educational Needs

0 = None
1 = Individual
2 = Organization
3 = Community
4 = Regional
5 = State

Appendix E: Rating Instrument for Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee

(Outcome ratings: 1 = low, 3 = high)

Project name _____

Institution _____

		Size	Energy	Centrality	Degree of Strengthening	Degree of Continuation
Institutional involvement	Strengthening					
	Continuation					
Faculty involvement	Strengthening					
	Continuation					
Instructional program	Strengthening					
	Continuation					
Linkage	Strengthening					
	Continuation					
Image	Strengthening					
	Continuation					

INFLUENCES

1. Institutional prior experience with community service and continuing education

None/little	1
Moderate	2
Extensive	3

2. Status of the project director in the institution

	Official	Personal
Low	1	1
High	2	2

3. Status of the project director in the community

Low	1
High	2

4. Expertise of the project director

Process orientation	0	1
Subject matter orientation	0	1
Process and subject matter orientation	0	1

5. Administration attitude toward community service–institutional

Unfavorable	1
Indifferent	2
Favorable	3

6. Administration attitude toward community service–unit

Unfavorable	1
Indifferent	2
Favorable	3

7. Faculty attitude toward community service–institutional

Unfavorable	1
Unaware	2
Indifferent	3
Favorable	4

8. Faculty attitude toward community service–unit

Unfavorable	1
Unaware	2
Indifferent	3
Favorable	4

9. Project initiated by

Project director	0	1
Administration	0	1
Community	0	1
Consortium/state	0	1

10. Location of the developmental project–project level

Individual effort	0	1
Academic department	0	1
Extension (includes continuing/community service unit)	0	1
Central administration	0	1

11. Location of community service program being developed

Individual effort	0	1
Academic department	0	1
Extension (includes continuing/community service unit)	0	1
Central administration	0	1

12. Predominant location of community service program–institutional level

Academic department	0	1
Extension (includes continuing education/ community service unit)	0	1
Central administration	0	1

13. Amount of funding

Less than $2,500	1
$2,500 - $10,000	2
$10,001 - $24,999	3
$25,000 - $39,999	4
$40,000 - $74,999	5
$75,000 or more	6

14. Duration of project thrust

One year	1
Two years	2
Three years	3
Four years	4
Five years or more	5

PROCESSES

15. Performing change agent roles – institution (1 = low, 2 = high)

Catalyst	0	1	2
Solution giver	0	1	2
Process helper	0	1	2
Resource linker	0	1	2

Total of circled numbers

16. Performing change agent roles – community (1 = low, 2 = high)

Catalyst	0	1	2
Solution giver	0	1	2
Process helper	0	1	2
Resource linker	0	1	2

Total of circled numbers

17. Developing administrative support

Publicizing through media	0	1
Maintaining communication with administration	0	1
Involving adminstration in program activities	0	1
Creating/using pressure in the community	0	1
Providing feedback from evaluation	0	1

Total methods used

18. Developing faculty support

Offering monetary incentives	0	1
Engaging in efforts to revise reward system	0	1
Publicizing Title I activities to faculty	0	1
Opportunity for increasing competence	0	1
Offering status rewards	0	1
Offering released time	0	1
Including community service in job description	0	1

Total methods used

19. Assessing needs: types (1 = low, 2 = high)

Normative	0	1	2
Felt	0	1	2
Expressed	0	1	2
Comparative	0	1	2

Total of circled numbers

20. Assessing needs: processes

None	1
Informal	2
Formal	3

21. Identifying institutional resources

None	1
Informal	2
Formal	3

22. Selecting project topics

Fit with goals and priorities	0	1
Congruent with needs identified	0	1
Congruent with resources available	0	1
Timely topic – national	0	1
Timely topic – state	0	1
Timely topic – community	0	1

23. Obtaining supplemental resources (1 = low, 2 = high)

Federal government	0	1	2
State government	0	1	2
Foundations	0	1	2
Community sources	0	1	2
Institution-discretionary, in-kind (exclude match)	0	1	2
Tuition and fees for community service	0	1	2
Other institutions	0	1	2
Total of circled numbers			

24. Involving the community – who

Minorities: ethnic and economic	0	1
Community leaders	0	1
Government leaders/officials	0	1
Agencies/organizations	0	1
Special interest groups	0	1
Business/industry	0	1
Total groups involved		

25. Involving the community – how

Assessing needs	0	1
Providing physical resources	0	1
Providing financial resources	0	1
Providing clientele	0	1
Teaching	0	1
Evaluating	0	1
Pressuring institution to continue	0	1
Total methods used		

26. Method of delivery

Conference, workshop, seminar	0		1
Courses (longer term)	0		1
Television/videotape	0		1
Consulting and technical assistance	0		1
Research	0		1

27. Orienting the project (1 = low, 3 = high)

Community	1	2	3
Institution	1	2	3

Total of circled numbers

Appendix F: Summary of Correlations between Outcomes

(Computed in second year only)

	Strengthening of institutional involvement	Continuation of institutional involvement	Strengthening of faculty involvement	Continuation of faculty involvement	Strengthening of instructional program	Continuation of instructional program	Strengthening of linkage	Continuation of linkage	Strengthening of image	Continuation of image
Strengthening of institutional involvement		.88	.66	.77	.50	.49	.47	.42	.37	.56
Continuation of institutional involvement	.88		.58	.76	.52	.55	.62	.54	.56	.74
Strengthening of faculty involvement	.66	.58		.87	.53	.46				.37
Continuation of faculty involvement	.77	.76	.87		.60	.57	.52	.44	.39	.50
Strengthening of instructional program	.50	.52	.53	.60		.88	.32			.40
Continuation of instructional program	.49	.55	.46	.57	.88		.36			.40
Strengthening of linkage	.47	.62		.52	.32	.36		.79	.79	.62
Continuation of linkage	.42	.54		.44			.79		.59	.69
Strengthening of image	.37	.56		.39			.79	.59		.69
Continuation of of image	.56	.74	.37	.50	.40	.40	.62	.69	.69	

Appendix G: Multivariate Analyses of Variance for Strengthening and Continuation Outcomes

The results of the multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) are given on the following pages. For the first year when Connecticut, Georgia, and Minnesota were studied, the analysis for each dependent or outcome variable was carried out using a different set of independent variables, whereas, when Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee were studied in the second year, the same set of independent variables was used for each analysis.

WHAT INFORMATION DOES THE MANOVA PROVIDE?

The MANOVA assumes that a *random* sample of projects has been drawn from some *defined* population of projects. For analysis, the projects that had been studied are grouped according to their value on the dependent or outcome variable. These will be *differences* between the groups on the independent variables. The MANOVA gives the probability that the differences that have been found between groups would not also be found in the population to which the groups of projects belong.

For the first year, a different significance test, Rao's approximate F, was used compared to the second year when Bartlett's Chi-square test of Wilks' Lambda was calculated. For the second year, all MANOVA's gave statistically significant results at the .05 level. The value of the probability given by a MANOVA is dependent on a number of factors:

1. The greater the size of the groups, the lower the probability of not finding the differences in the population.
2. The greater the number of independent variables (particularly in relation to group size), the lower the probability.
3. The nature of the independent variables influences the probability. Different variables were used in the first year compared to the second. If independent variables are used on which the groups are vastly different, this will decrease the probability that the differences will not be found in the population.

RESULTS FOR CONNECTICUT, GEORGIA, AND MINNESOTA

Strengthening of Institutional Involvement

Rao's approximate $F_{(28,340)} = 3.55$
Significant at the .05 level ($p = .01$)
Independent variables used:

- Nature and extent of top-level support
- Performing change agent roles
- Institutional faculty attitudes
- Obtaining supplemental resources
- Developing faculty support
- Developing administrative support
- Assessing needs: processes
- Type of needs assessed
- Unit faculty attitudes
- Identifying institutional resources
- Status of the project director
- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Level of educational needs
- Orienting the project

Strengthening of Faculty Involvement

Rao's approximate $F_{(34,340)} = 3.65$
Significant at the .05 level ($p = .01$)
Independent variables used:

- Assessing needs: processes
- Status of the project director
- Developing administrative support
- Individual administration
- Obtaining supplemental resources
- Involving the community
- Identifying institutional resources
- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Level of educational needs
- Existing or new community service structure and interinstitutional cooperation
- Institutional faculty attitudes
- Developing faculty support
- Orienting the project
- Performing change agent roles
- Unit faculty attitudes
- Nature and extent of unit top-level support
- Type of needs assessed

Continuation of Institutional Involvement

Rao's approximate $F_{(8,170)} = 1.91$
Not significant at .05 level
Independent variables used:

- Obtaining supplemental resources
- Type of needs assessed
- Identifying institutional resources
- Performing change agent roles
- Involving the community
- Orienting the project
- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Assessing needs: processes

Continuation of Faculty Involvement

Rao's approximate $F_{(17,340)} = 2.57$
Not significant at .05 level
Independent variables used:

- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Involving the community
- Timeliness
- Developing faculty support
- Developing administrative support
- Assessing needs: processes
- Institutional faculty attitudes

Strengthening of Instructional Program

Rao's approximate $F_{(26,30)} = 3.61$
Significant at the .05 level ($p = .01$)
Independent variables used:

- Institutional faculty attitudes
- Assessing needs: processes
- Developing administrative support
- Orienting the project
- Timeliness
- Developing faculty support
- Performing change agent roles
- Project fit with institutional goals
- Nature and extent of top-level support
- Identifying institutional resources
- Noncommunity service structure
- Involving the community
- Existing or new community service structure and interinstitutional cooperation

Strengthening of Linkage

Rao's approximate $F_{(22,54)} = 4.51$
Significant at the .05 level ($p = .01$)
Independent variables used:

- Performing change agent roles
- Type of needs assessed
- Developing faculty support
- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Obtaining supplemental resources
- Level of educational needs
- Assessing needs: processes
- Nature and extent of top-level support
- Developing administrative support
- Identifying institutional resources
- Involving the community

Continuation of Instructional Program

Rao's approximate $F_{(24,20)} = 6.09$
Significant at the .05 level ($p = .01$)
Independent variables used:

- Timeliness
- Orienting the project
- Neither project fit nor timeliness
- Involving the community
- Nature and extent of top-level support
- Developing faculty support
- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Identifying institutional resources
- Existing or new community service structure and interinstitutional cooperation
- Obtaining supplemental resources
- Institutional faculty attitudes

Continuation of Linkage

Rao's approximate $F_{(10,19)} = 2.80$
Significant at the .05 level
Independent variables used:

- Identifying institutional resources
- Assessing needs: processes
- Type of needs assessed
- Timeliness
- Obtaining supplemental resources
- Performing change agent roles
- Developing administrative support
- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Project fit with institutional goals
- Existing or new community service structure and interinstitutional cooperation

Strengthening of Image

Rao's approximate $F_{(14,25)} = 6.83$
Significant at the .05 level ($p = .01$)
Independent variables used:

- Performing change agent roles
- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Developing administrative support
- Involving the community
- Project fit with institutional goals
- Unit faculty attitudes
- Orienting the project
- Identifying institutional resources
- Type of needs assessed
- Nature and extent of top-level support
- Level of educational needs
- Neither project fit nor timeliness
- Assessing needs: processes
- Institutional faculty attitudes

Continuation of Image

Rao's approximate $F_{(13,15)} = 5.93$
Significant at the .05 level ($p = .01$)
Independent variables used:

- Existing or new community service structure and interinstitutional cooperation
- Project fit with institutional goals
- Level of educational needs
- Prior community service and continuing education experience
- Type of needs assessed
- Orienting the project
- Identifying institutional resources
- Developing administrative support
- Institutional faculty attitudes
- Noncommunity service structure
- Involving the community
- Performing change agent roles
- Assessing needs: processes

RESULTS FOR COLORADO, OKLAHOMA, AND TENNESSEE

Independent variables used:

- Official status of the project director in the institution
- Institutional administrative support
- Institutional faculty attitudes
- Amount of funding
- Duration of funding
- Total change agent role in the institution
- Total change agent role in the community
- Developing administrative support
- Developing faculty support
- Total types of needs assessed
- Assessing needs: processes
- Identifying institutional resources
- Total obtaining supplemental resources
- Involving the community — who
- Involving the community — how
- Delivering programs through courses
- Delivering programs through television
- Community orientation
- Institutional orientation
- Transactive orientation

VALUE OF BARTLETT'S CHI-SQUARE

Dependent variable used:	Test of Wilks' Lambda	Degrees of Freedom	Probability
Strengthening of institutional involvement	82.1	57	.016
Continuation of institutional involvement	100.84	60	.001
Strengthening of faculty involvement	104.64	60	.001
Continuation of faculty involvement	111.39	60	.001
Strengthening of instructional program	85.46	57	.009
Continuation of instructional program	74.12	57	.050
Strengthening of linkage	68.06	38	.002
Continuation of linkage	100.65	60	.001
Strengthening of image	56.67	40	.042
Continuation of image	139.33	60	.001

Appendix H: Summary of Correlations between Variables and Outcomes

Only those correlation coefficients significantly different from zero at the .05 level or below have been reported.

*Correlation computed in second year only.

**For the first year, subcategories were not used and values indicated are multiple correlations. The variables are multiple regression composites of the variables listed immediately below them. Values indicated for subcategories are single correlations.

	Strengthening outcomes									
Influence variables	Institutional involvement		Faculty involvement		Instructional program		Linkage		Image	
	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year
Nature and extent of administrative support		.39								
Faculty attitudes – institutional level		.48	.36	.69		.33		.42		.42
Faculty attitudes – organizational unit level	.59	.41	.64				.49		.59	
Total: official and personal status in the institution and community**	.36	.55	.51	.58	.40	.45			.35	
Official status of the project director in the institution*						−.31				

Personal status of the project director in the institution*				
Status of the project director in the community*				
Amount of funding*	.32	.37	.33	.44
Duration of funding*	.31			.36

Influence variables	Continuation outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Nature and extent of administrative support		.43			-.45		.36			.39
Faculty attitudes – institutional level		.53		.61						.42
Faculty attitudes – organizational unit level	.41	.46					.41		.50	
Total: official and personal status in the institution and community**		.53		.49		.46				.50
Official status of the project director in the institution*										
Personal status of the project director in the institution*										
Status of the project director in the community*										
Amount of funding*				.52						
Duration of funding*		.31		.34		.33				

Influence variables	Strengthening outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Initiation by project director*						.36		.36		.34
Initiation by administration*						−.32				
Institutions' prior experience with community service and continuing education										
Project director as a process specialist*										
Project director as a subject matter specialist*		−.48						−.50		
Project director as a process and subject matter specialist*										

Influence variables	Continuation outcomes							
	Institutional involvement		Faculty involvement		Instructional program		Linkage		Image	
	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year
Initiation by project director*		.37				.43				.44
Initiation by administration*								−.36		−.37
Initiation by the state*										
Institutions' prior experience with community service and continuing education										
Project director as a process specialist*										
Project director as a subject matter specialist*		−.43		−.34				−.42		
Project director as a process and subject matter specialist*						.39				

Process variables	Strengthening outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Total change agent roles performed in the institution* **		.72		.64		.62		.70		.52
Catalyst in the institution*		.48		.44		.39		.58		.48
Solution giver in the institution*		.59		.44		.42				
Process helper in the institution*		.56		.44		.55		.42		
Resource linker in the institution*		.50		.56		.38		.47		.44
Total: change agent roles performed in the community* **		.52						.70		.54
Catalyst in the community*								.52		.44
Solution giver in the community*										
Process helper in the community*										
Resource linker in the community*		.42						.66		.44
Total: change agent roles performed in the institution and community**	.76	.77	.65	.64		.62	.74	.86	.72	.63

Process variables	Continuation outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Total change agent roles performed in the institution* **		.67		.74		.59		.53		
Catalyst in the institution*		.43		.60				.41		.32
Solution giver in the institution*		.52		.49						
Process helper in the institution*		.56		.54		.56		.37		.35
Resource linker in the institution*		.44		.56				.38		
Total: change agent roles performed in the community* **		.51						.55		.46
Catalyst in the community*		.37						.38		.36
Solution giver in the community*										
Process helper in the community*								.36		
Resource linker in the community*		.44						.51		.40
Total: change agent roles performed in the institution and community**	.56	.73		.74		.61	.55	.68	.53	.55

Process variables	Strengthening outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Total: developing administrative support**	.43	.57	.49	.42	.40	.44		.59	.47	.55
Publicizing through the media*						.40		.41		.31
Maintaining communication with administrators*		.32						.47		.47
Involving administrators in program activities*		.50		.34				.33		.33
Total: developing faculty support**	.37	.42	.35	.47	.43	.40		.41		
Offering monetary incentives*										
Publicizing activities to faculty*		.34								
Opportunities to increase competence*		.31		.37		.33		.37		.38

Process variables	Continuation outcomes									
	Institutional involvement		Faculty involvement		Instructional program		Linkage		Image	
	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year	1 year	2 year
Total: developing administrative support**		.55		.55		.43		.45		.44
Publicizing through the media*		.38		.38		.39				
Maintaining communication with administrators*		.32		.31				.44		.39
Involving administrators in program activities*		.42		.42						
Total: developing faculty support**		.42		.51		.44				
Offering monetary incentives*										
Publicizing activities to faculty*		.33		.34						
Opportunities to increase competence*		.34		.41		.38				

Process variables	Strengthening outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Total: types of needs assessed**	.56	.54	.42				.66	.57	.46	.50
Normative needs*										
Felt needs*		.43						.50		.43
Expressed needs*								.32		
Comparative needs*		.39				.33				
Assessing needs: processes	.47		.32				.62	.47	.35	.48
Continuation outcomes										
Total: types of needs assessed**	.44	.61		.52		.41	.55	.65		.47
Normative needs*						.34				
Felt needs*		.50		.32				.60		.45
Expressed needs*								.44		
Comparative needs*		.45		.46						
Assessing needs: processes		.40		.41				.41	.41	.39

Process variables	Strengthening outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Total: involving the community—who**		.53	.53	.48			.39	.48		.48
Community leaders*		.35		.39		.33				
Government leaders*										−.36
Agencies and organizations*		.32								
Business and industry*								−.33		
Total: involving the community—how**		.58		.43				.48		.44
Assessing needs*		.32						.46		.36
Providing clientele*		.46		.42						
Providing financial resources*										
Total: involving the community—who and how**		.69		.59				.63		.64

Process variables	Continuation outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Total: involving the community–who**		.53	.44	.52				.45		.48
Community leaders*		.42		.46						.31
Government leaders*										
Agencies and organizations*										
Business and industry*								−.31		−.32
Total: involving the community–how* **		.54		.48				.54		.42
Assessing needs*		.34						.53		.31
Providing clientele*		.39		.38						
Providing financial resources*										
Total: involving the community–who and how* **		.67		.63				.63		.60

Process variables	Strengthening outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Total: obtaining supplemental resources**		.41				.42	.33	.44		
From the federal government*										
From the community*										
From the institution *		.37				.38		.32		
Project administered by an individual		−.45						−.32		
Project administered through an academic unit						.39				
Project administered through an extension unit				.40						
Project administered through the central administration*				−.36						
Fit with institutional goals and priorities		.37			−.44					
Congruent with needs indentified*										
Compatible with resources available*						.36				
Nationally timely topic				.49	.46					

Process variables	Continuation outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Total: obtaining supplemental resources**		.52		.50		.50		.50		.46
From the federal government*				.37						
From the community*										.31
From the institution*		.43		.41		.44		.33		
Project administered by an individual	−.56	−.39	−.44					−.55		−.34
Project administered through an academic unit						.35				
Project administered through an extension unit										
Project administered through the central administration*						−.33				
Fit with institutional goals and priorities		.37			−.68				.37	
Congruent with needs identified*										.33
Compatible with resources available*						.38				
Nationally timely topic				.41	.45		−.36			

Process variables	Strengthening outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Identifying institutional resources				.38			.42			
Delivering programs through courses*		.42		.39		.52				
Delivering programs through conferences and seminars*										
Delivering programs through television*										-.33
Delivering programs through research*						.33				
Community orientation*		.34						.55		.40
Institutional orientation*		.60		.63		.62		.34		.36
Transactive orientation	.45	.69	.53	.57	.58	.51		.63	.33	.54

Process variables	Continuation outcomes: Institutional involvement 1 year	Institutional involvement 2 year	Faculty involvement 1 year	Faculty involvement 2 year	Instructional program 1 year	Instructional program 2 year	Linkage 1 year	Linkage 2 year	Image 1 year	Image 2 year
Identifying institutional resources										
Delivering programs through courses*		.49		.49		.52		.35		.43
Delivering programs through conferences and seminars*										
Delivering programs through television*										-.37
Delivering programs through research*										
Community orientation*		.50		.33				.50		.58
Institutional orientation*		.54		.65		.47		.38		.42
Transactive orientation		.76		.72	.56	.40		.62		.71

Appendix I: Multiple Correlations of Selected Influences and Processes

Influences: Nature and extent of top-level administrative support

Faculty attitudes at the institutional level

Status of the project director

Outcome	Correlation	Level of significance
Strengthening of institutional involvement	.56	
Continuation of institutional involvement	.62	
Strengthening of faculty involvement	.73	.02
Continuation of faculty involvement	.73	.02
Strengthening of instructional programs	.41	
Continuation of instructional programs	.34	
Strengthening of linkage	.47	
Continuation of linkage	.70	.03
Strengthening of image	.46	
Continuation of image	.60	

Processes: Performing change agent roles in the institution

Performing change agent roles in the community

Developing administrative support

Developing faculty support

Multiple approaches to needs assessment

Ways of involving the community

Outcome	Correlation	Level of significance
Strengthening of institutional involvement	.82	.001
Continuation of institutional involvement	.80	.001
Strengthening of faculty involvement	.69	.001
Continuation of faculty involvement	.79	.001
Strengthening of instructional programs	.67	.001
Continuation of instructional programs	.67	.001
Strengthening of linkage	.53	
Continuation of linkage	.79	.001
Strengthening of image	.71	.001
Continuation of image	.64	.001

Appendix J: Statistical Means of Outcomes, Influences, and Processes for Project Orientations

	Community oriented	Higher education oriented	Transactive oriented
Strengthening of institutional involvement	1.47	1.73	2.29
Continuation of institutional involvement	1.47	1.18	2.18
Strengthening of faculty involvement	0.80	1.46	1.94
Continuation of faculty involvement	0.53	1.00	1.82
Strengthening of instructional program	0.67	1.64	1.71
Continuation of instructional program	0.87	1.55	1.53
Strengthening of linkage	2.47	1.91	2.94
Continuation of linkage	2.13	1.36	2.53
Strengthening of image	2.33	1.91	2.77
Continuation of image	2.20	1.46	2.41
Prior institutional community service and continuing education experience	1.47	1.73	1.94
Project director as subject matter specialist	0.13	0.36	0.00
Institutional administrative support	2.67	2.73	2.94
Institutional faculty attitudes	2.69	3.00	3.63

Personal status of the project director in the institution	1.57	2.00	1.81
Initiated by the state	0.20	0.46	0.24
Amount of funding	2.33	2.73	3.47
Administered through extension unit	0.27	0.00	0.65
Total change agent role of the project director in the institution	2.20	3.91	5.50
Total change agent role of the project director in the community	6.1[illegible]	4.00	6.80
Total developing administrative support	1.80	1.30	2.18
Total developing faculty support	1.07	1.20	2.50
Total types of needs assessed	4.07	2.80	5.35
Assessing needs: processes	2.20	1.70	2.53
Identifying institutional resources	2.07	2.[illegible]	2.13
Fit with institutional goals and priorities	0.67	0.64	0.77
Fit with needs identified	0.67	0.18	0.47
Fit with resources available	0.27	0.55	0.53
Timely topic in the community	0.47	0.27	0.41
Total obtaining supplemental resources	3.13	1.73	3.65
Total involving the community – who	1.73	1.82	2.53
Total involving the community – how	2.67	1.55	3.11
Delivering programs through television	0.07	0.40	0.35

Appendix K: Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Project Orientations

(Colorado, Oklahoma, and Tennessee)

Bartlett's Chi-square test of Wilks' Lambda
Chi-square (df = 26) = 58.61
Significant at the .000 level

Variables used
Assessing needs: processes
Total change agent role of the project director in the institution
Total types of needs assessed
Total change agent role of the project director in the community
Total developing faculty support
Total involving the community — how
Institutional faculty attitude
Total obtaining supplemental resources
Total developing administrative support
Project director as subject matter specialist
Initiated by the state
Fit with resources available
Timely topic in the community

Appendix L: Additional Case Examples

CASE EXAMPLE 5: DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPREHENSIVE PROGRAM

This case study focused on the efforts of one institution to develop total institutional involvement in community problem-solving activities. The needs of several target populations were addressed in community service programs started or expanded as a result of developmental efforts. Community service programs that were developed at least in part as a result of efforts funded under the Act included: a program designed to teach better management skills to individuals in the large and growing local tourism business; a program for Indian citizens that provided job-skills training for the underemployed and developed videotapes designed to stimulate interest and pride in the Native American culture; and a program that addressed the needs of senior citizens and the training needs of local industry.

Influences

Prior Experience. The sponsoring institution was a relatively small, rural, state university, formerly a teachers' college. The main function of the institution had been the teaching of undergraduate students. Recently, with a change in top-level administration, the Continuing Education Division was created and charged with the task of developing an institutionwide continuing education and community service program. The division has a director who is also the institutional coordinator for all outside grants, and a project director who coordinates several project thrusts related to the overall community service and continuing education program.

Status of the Project Director. There were two individuals whose status was important to the success of the program. The institutional coordinator for Title I (HEA, 1965) had high official status as director of the Continuing Education Division. He also had high personal status and visibility both in the community and in the institution. The project director was responsible for coordinating efforts related to specific project thrusts. Although his official status as an instructor was low, his personal status was high. He was highly respected both by his colleagues in the institution and by various community representatives with whom he worked. His personal status, more than his official status, was regarded by his peers and superiors as a key element leading to the success of projects. The high official status of the division director compensated for the relatively low official status of the project director. Both individuals were highly respected among personnel on campus, as well as in the

community. Both the institutional coordinator and the project director were considered to be knowledgeable in an academic subject area and also in the art of project implementation.

Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support. The president of the institution was highly in favor of increasing the institution's involvement in community service, continuing education, and community problem-solving efforts. He was responsible for creating the Continuing Education Division and may in the future raise it to college status.

Faculty Attitude. Faculty members within the institution, as a whole, had a favorable attitude toward community service activities. Those faculty members who were either superficially acquainted with or directly involved in particular projects funded under the Act were also very positive in their attitudes toward these types of efforts.

Manner of Funding. The institution received more than $60,000 during a three-year period. It received funding for a combination of efforts rather than for specific projects, which allowed flexibility in the use of the funding in the grant period.

Processes

Performing Change Agent Roles. Together the institutional coordinator and the project director performed change agent roles of catalyst, process helper, and resource linker. They were strong catalytic agents in involving the institution and individual faculty members in community service efforts. They played these change agent roles both within the institution and in the community. Neither the institutional coordinator nor the project director performed the change agent role of solution giver to any extent. Both firmly believed in a collaborative approach to community problem solving, involving both institutional personnel and local citizens. Neither wished to impose his answer to community problems upon the community.

Developing Administrative Support. Even though the degree of top-level administrative support was already quite high, both the institutional coordinator and the project director made special efforts to maintain that support. This was done by publicizing programs through the media, keeping administrators informed about particular activities and progress, and, where possible, involving top-level administrators directly in program activities.

Developing Faculty Support. Faculty support for community service activities was encouraged through offering monetary incentives, publicizing Title I (HEA, 1965) activities to faculty members, and making opportunities available for faculty members to improve their competence through involvement in community problem-solving activities.

Assessing Needs. Formal surveys of various segments of the community were used to assess the felt needs of the community. In addition, experts in the institution were involved in determining needs as were citizens in the community who requested particular community service and continuing education programs. Often it was decided that a particular program was needed merely because no other agency or institution in the area was addressing the needs of these specific client groups.

Selecting Project Topics. Project topics were selected based on the following criteria: (1) congruence with the institution's goals and priorities related to developing an institutionwide community service and continuing education program; (2) congruency with needs identified, especially felt and expressed needs; (3) feasibility in that necessary resources were available, such as faculty expertise, time, and materials; and (4) timeliness in the local community.

Involving the Community. The philosophy of institutional personnel reflected a deep commitment to the inclusion of various segments of the community in both the planning and implementation of projects funded under the Act. For example, persons representing the Indian community, the tourism business, local government and chambers of commerce, senior citizens groups, industry, and various agencies and organizations were involved in project thrusts. These individuals assisted personnel from the institution in the community problem-solving process by helping to determine the nature of needs for particular programs, providing sites and other facilities for meeting places, recruiting participants for projects, and evaluating project efforts.

Outcomes

Strengthening. A comprehensive and many-faceted community service and continuing education program was developed as a result of efforts funded under the Act. The institution is now intensely involved in and committed to several community problem-solving efforts. The image and reputation of the institution as a resource for community problem-solving efforts has greatly increased. New ties and communication networks have been established and positive relationships have developed between the institution and various segments of the community, including local industry, senior citizens groups,

persons in the tourist trade, and the Native American community. In addition, instructional programs have been strengthened especially in regard to tourism in which a new academic major program has developed. Faculty involvement in community service and continuing education has also increased because extra money was available to pay faculty members and because these efforts were seen by faculty members as an opportunity to increase professional competence.

Continuation. Although funding under the Act has continued for three years, continuation of these programmatic efforts seems quite likely. Because top-level administrative support for continuing education and community service efforts is very positive, it seems likely that the institution's involvement in such activities will continue, either at their present level or at an increased level. Instructional courses developed in tourism have already become a permanent part of the institution's degree-granting program. All indications are that the linkages with various sectors of the community, as well as the institution's visibility related to community problem-solving efforts, will be maintained, if not increased. Personal commitment of faculty members from a variety of departments has increased as a result of projects funded under the Act. The institution has made a substantial budgetary commitment to community service and continuing education.

Author's Comments

In this case example, the relatively low official status of the project director was *compensated* for by teaming him with a division director. Project personnel, moreover, were philosophically committed to what is referred to in this report as a *transactive orientation* to developing and implementing community service programs.

CASE EXAMPLE 6: CONSUMER EDUCATION PROJECT

This project was designed to provide consumer education throughout the state. By upgrading the skills of extension home economists located in various parts of the state who worked with community leaders and agency personnel, the project emphasized the use of an existing statewide network relevant to community service. It was conducted through the university's Cooperative Extension Service.

Influences

Prior Experience. Although the institution was a large land-grant university with a long history of community service, there were few programs related to community problem solving. The main functions of the institution were research, teaching, and public service. Research, however, was the function that was most emphasized and most recognized in terms of tenure and promotion.

Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support. At the beginning of the project there was some indication of philosophical support for community service as an important function of the institution. However, few resources were made available for such activities.

Status of the Project Director. The project director had relatively high official status as a tenured associate professor in the extension division. She was respected both as a subject matter specialist and as one who had brought in a considerable amount of external funding. Her personal status, however, contributed most to the success of the project. She was the initiator of the project and was described as a person with a high energy level; a very determined, enthusiastic, and persuasive nature; and a great sense of salesmanship. She had a deep personal commitment to the project and was highly regarded in the community.

Faculty Attitudes. The faculty members with whom the project director was most immediately associated were fellow professors of extension. Their jobs mainly consisted of providing community service, and they were generally favorable to it. Faculty members with academic or research assignments elsewhere in the institution tended to be somewhat remote from and indifferent to community service. Very few faculty members were as centrally involved in the project as the project director.

Processes

Performing Change Agent Roles. While the project director played many change agent roles, most of the efforts to bring about change were directed toward the community rather than the institution. The project director was the catalytic agent initiating and generating enthusiasm for the project, especially among community agency personnel. She worked hard to link resources in the community and in the institution with needs in the community. The project director helped to coordinate the project's efforts and taught courses in consumerism to extension home economists who, in turn, taught low income families.

Assessing Needs. The project director, as a subject matter specialist in consumerism, helped to identify the needs to be addressed. She asked extension home economists and social service agency personnel throughout the state if they needed training sessions in the consumer problems of low income families. A need was felt for this type of training, but agency personnel were unable to come to the university to take courses during working hours. Because of the need and because of this potential barrier, the project director took the program to the agencies and obtained permission to teach the courses in their offices. Clients were also involved through "rap sessions" to find out what their needs were and what they were willing to do to help meet those needs.

Developing Administrative Support. Evaluative feedback, based on data obtained in pretests and posttests, was provided to top-level administrators. Also, the project director kept top administrators informed about the program and activities of her project. When she received a grant from a private foundation, she immediately shared this information with her dean and with the president. She utilized public mass media, including newspapers and television, to gain administrative support and to increase statewide visibility of her project.

Obtaining Supplemental Resources. Television sets were obtained from local TV servicemen's organizations and distributed to regional offices throughout the state. Supplemental funding was solicited from private foundations and the state.

Involving the Community. Personnel from social service agencies which dealt particularly with the needs of low income families were involved with the project director in the planning and implementation of the project.

Outcomes

Strengthening. A statewide network had been strengthened. Communication was made possible through the use of educational television and correspondence courses, designed to provide in-service training to persons who taught consumer education. Educational "packages" were produced and used in classes throughout the state. Eleven offices, 100 community leaders and agency people, and, in turn, approximately 80,000 families were eventually involved. The image of the extension service was greatly increased throughout the state, as was that of particular individuals, such as the project director.

Continuation. The program that was begun with funding provided under the Act was continued as a result of foundation funds and state funding. The previous existence of the Cooperative Extension Service and of the project director's job in that organization facilitated continuation of what was started with funding under the Act. The institution's public image in the community continued to improve as a result of the project. The educational packages developed in the project's initial efforts were used again in other consumer education programs.

Author's Comments

This case example was chosen because it illustrates how a developmental effort funded under the Act was designed and implemented to *capitalize* on the traditions, expertise, and strength of the Cooperative Extension Service by focusing its efforts on a specialized type of community service that was relevant to the needs of community problem solvers.

CASE EXAMPLE 7: PROJECT FOR RETARDED ADULTS

This project represented a state university's efforts to develop educational activities to provide job skills training and general improvement in the quality of life for retarded adults in the surrounding urban community. The project emphasized the efforts of the institution to better serve the urban community generally and retarded adults specifically.

The institution had an undergraduate liberal arts history, but it was in the process of broadening its offerings to include community service activities. Increasing emphasis was placed on developing experiential education activities that were likely to encourage student as well as faculty involvement in community problem solving.

Influences

Status of the Project Director. The project director was a student with several years experience as a paraprofessional. She had high personal status within the institution and community. The project director's lack of official status was compensated for by the institutional coordinator who served as dean of community service.

Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support. The president was very supportive of the institution's efforts to expand its community service activities and was the catalyst for hiring a dean and assistant dean of community service on hard money.

Faculty Attitudes. Faculty members in increasing numbers of academic units were favorably disposed toward engaging in Title I (HEA, 1965) activities, because they provided students an opportunity to gain some "real life" experiences in the community and allowed faculty members from several academic units to work together on interdisciplinary efforts.

Location of Project Administration. The developmental project was initially administered through the Office of Community Service. The project later became the shared responsibility of several academic departments. The location of the project in the academic units appreciably enhanced the project's chances of becoming part of the primary mission of the institution, which was teaching.

Manner of Funding. The amount of funding for the two-year project was rather small. However, the project personnel made the most efficient use of money and resources by using a cadre of volunteers, both student and faculty members, as instructors and by aggressively seeking sources of funding to supplement that which was started under the Act.

Processes

Performing Change Agent Roles. The project director and institutional coordinator performed complementary change agent roles in developing interest for Title I (HEA, 1965) among faculty members and students and in linking institutional resources with requests for assistance from various community agencies concerned with the educational needs of retarded adults. The institutional coordinator was the institutional catalyst, while the project director was the process helper and resource linker involved in locating and training volunteers.

Developing Administrative Support. The fact that the initial request for educational assistance originated in the community provided some pressure for the institution's top-level administrators to support the development of the Title I (HEA, 1965) activity. In addition, subsequent local, state, and national publicity as a result of the program's success as well as feedback from community agencies on the positive impact of the program increased administrators' commitments to community service because of the visibility the project had provided the institution.

Developing Faculty Support. Most faculty support centered on the humanitarian nature of the project. Faculty members were often willing to

volunteer time for the project. The project had the added benefits of providing faculty members and students with field experiences involving retarded adults and working with various community social welfare agencies.

Assessing Needs. The program for retarded adults was the result of the expressed needs of a home for retarded adults which presented the institution with a written request for assistance. Subsequently, personnel from other community agencies served on a committee to provide periodic assessment of the educational needs of retarded adults.

Obtaining Supplemental Resources. A low level of funding was allocated for the project, so that seeking supplemental funding was a high priority for project personnel. Fortunately, the success of the first-year programmatic efforts made acquisition of institutional, private foundation, and community agency money a relatively easy task.

Involving the Community. The original project was initiated based on the expression of need from one of the homes for the retarded in the community. Community involvement increased as the project evolved with more and more community agencies offering assistance, training community volunteers, and providing financial assistance.

Outcomes

Strengthening. The institution's efforts to assist retarded adults educationally through Title I (HEA, 1965) activities resulted in publicity and new awareness among community agencies of the institutional resources available to the community. The project provided new opportunities for residential instruction in the form of work-study programs for students. As the project activities grew in scope and size, more faculty members became involved, many on a voluntary basis. The involvement of faculty members and students provided communication networks between the institution and community which previously had been almost nonexistent.

Continuation. As the first year's project gained publicity, the requests from community agencies increased, and the administration saw the desirability of maintaining the institutional involvement. The administration provided hard money for a dean and assistant dean of community service. In turn, the community agencies began to realize the value of the program and supplied volunteer help, facilities, and financial assistance. Ties with the community were further maintained by faculty members and students offering volunteer time to remain involved in the project.

Author's Comments

In this case example, the lack of official status of the project director, who was a student, was *compensated* for by teaming that person with a dean. There was ample evidence, moreover, from the way the various key processes were conceptualized and implemented to indicate that a *transactive-oriented* approach was used.

CASE EXAMPLE 8: MINORITY BUSINESSMEN PROJECT

This project enabled a community college to assist minority businessmen whose businesses were thought to be essential to the development of an inner-city community. Ultimately, the project sought to bring about community development through reversal of inner-city deterioration. The project enabled the institution to expand its community service effort which traditionally provided continuing education to individuals to further their personal interests or careers. The institution had no experience with releasing its resources relevant to community problem solving prior to Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965.

Influences

Faculty Attitudes. Faculty members in the organizational unit to which the project directors related were supportive of community service efforts. Other faculty members in the institution were generally favorable to efforts to increase the institution's involvement in community service.

Status of the Project Directors. Two tenured instructors served as the project directors. They had relatively high official and personal status in the institution because of the many years they had taught in the college. In addition, they had good rapport with the community because they had previously operated businesses in the community.

Nature and Extent of Top-Level Administrative Support. The president of the institution championed the project throughout its existence. He saw the desirability of expanding the institution's community service efforts related to community problem solving.

Location of Project Administration. The project was initially conducted through the president's office, which handled administrative matters. While the president maintained strong personal interest in the project, the decision was made to transfer administrative responsibility for the project and other

community service efforts to the academic dean. It was hoped that by doing so, a closer relationship could be established between the college's teaching and service functions.

Processes

Performing Change Agent Roles. The two project directors and a community specialist played somewhat specialized change agent roles. Together, their roles in the community were that of the catalyst, process helper, resource linker, and solution giver.

Assessing Needs. In designing the project, statements of what needs were to be addressed came from the project directors (who were subject matter specialists), from reading reports of previous analyses of the needs of the inner-city community, from a community specialist who was hired as a member of the project's staff, and from a survey of the minority businessmen themselves.

Developing Faculty Support. Faculty members were given released time to work on the project. Being part of the project made it possible for them to improve their ability to provide community service.

Obtaining Supplemental Resources. Some supplemental funds were sought and obtained from the state and from local foundations. Other funds were obtained as a result of the project directors' familiarity with the community and its resources.

Outcomes

Strengthening. The institution obtained a statewide reputation for excellence in community service, at least in part as a result of this project. Partly because of the project and partly for other reasons, the institution's involvement in community service rapidly increased. A variety of linkages with the community was established. An increased number of faculty members were assigned to provide community service. It must be noted, however, that escalation of the community service function placed an increasing strain on the institution's resources. A point was reached in which further strengthening of the community service function would necessitate additional appropriations of state funds explicitly to support community service.

Continuation. Continuation has been made possible by the use of faculty members on a released time basis, by the use of full-time students in experiential education classes, and through obtaining supplemental resources

from local foundations and the state. These resources have permitted continued faculty involvement, student involvement, and linkage. The image of the institution as one that involves itself deeply in providing educational assistance relevant to community problem solving has persisted.

Author's Comments

This case example illustrates how several processes together can contribute to a transactively oriented developmental effort. The project directors identified faculty member expertise. Based on their own previous experience in business and on inputs from community representatives, they identified the minority businessmen's educational needs. To strengthen the likelihood that appropriate contacts would be made and maintained in the community, one expert in recruiting minority participants from the community was hired. To strengthen the institutional involvement, full-time students in experiential education programs for academic credit were involved in the project under the supervision of the project directors.

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